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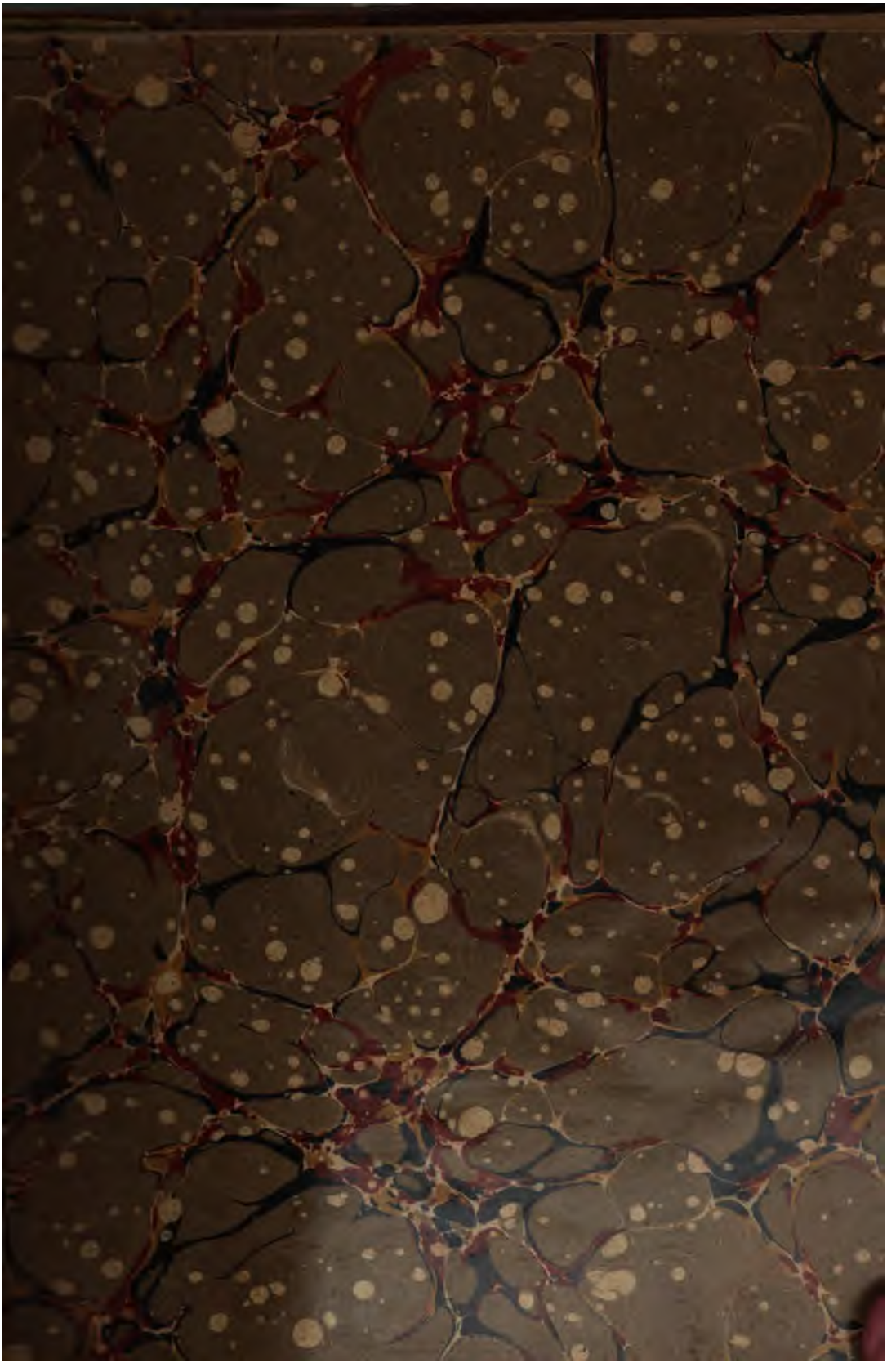
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DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF HIGH SCHOOLS ACADEMIES AND ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS

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THE POSITION OF GREEK IN THE UNIVERSITIES.

J. E. C. WELLDON, HEADMASTER HARROW SCHOOL, ENGLAND.

It is understood that the question of compulsory Greek will soon be raised by a practical motion in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. Such a motion, if it be made, will be partly attributable to the discussion which took place at the last conference of headmasters. But it will also be due to tendencies originating within the universities themselves. For the multiplication of educational subjects, which is a fact entailing necessary consequences, produces a pressure upon the public schools from above, as well as a pressure upon the universities from below; it must, in some degree, modify the curriculum of instruction, and the only question is what the modification shall be.

The time is opportune, then, for stating why the advocates of a certain relaxation in the conditions of entrance to the universities do not feel themselves confuted or convinced by the flood of letters, articles, and essays, which inundated the country after the conference of headmasters at Oxford. And perhaps, a word may first be said apologetically on behalf of the headmasters themselves. They have been rather hardly treated in this controversy. They are really not bad people after all; they are not, I think, worse than professors. Upon the whole, they understand and admit the just



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conditions of their calling. They do not dream of dictating to the universities. They acknowledge that it is their business to follow such educational guidance as is given by higher authorities; and they will follow it without grudging and without repining. But if they are not wiser than the mass of mankind, they are not, perhaps, demonstrably less wise; and it would seem that if there is one particular question upon which they may naturally express an opinion without the least risk of being held to have committed an offence of presumption or self-assertion, it is just the question of imposing a particular study upon all boys, whatever may be their tastes or aptitudes, as an inevitable condition of their enjoying the boon of academical life.

It is true, that, under the constitution of the English universities, educational questions are not ultimately decided by the votes of persons who are practised in education. Nor is this anomaly one which need be regretted. It is more important that an educational question affecting a large number of students should be widely and deliberately approved than that it should be rapidly effected. The end of education, whether at college or at school, is not so much learning as living. The influences of academical or scholastic life, so far as they are healthy, tend to qualify young men and boys for the practical duties of citizenship. And it is when a reform, however strictly intellectual, has been canvassed in a wide society for a long time, when it has won its way beyond the circle of specialists to the approval of the popular judgment, and has been found to answer the needs of men in the world, that it is ripe for acceptance and, if it is accepted, will produce beneficent results.

The justification of an educational movement may be often discovered in its history. No such movement is or can be the outcome of arbitrary personal predilections. To suppose that a body of headmasters, or any other body, has set itself, without good reason, to destroy a distinctive and valuable feature of English education, is to mistake or disregard probability. The headmasters of public schools at the present day have been often — perhaps too often — students exclusively of the classical languages and literatures; they have seldom been prominent in any other line of knowledge. They are the last persons to take up arms against classical culture. Whatever natural prepossessions they retain are all in favor of compulsory Greek. It is with surprise and regret that they find themselves regarded as intellectual Trojans. For although what is called a

modern education has in recent years made a definite advance, it may be said generally that the modern sides in public schools have been created, not by the grace of headmasters, but in spite of them. It has been the effort of headmasters not so much to create and encourage modern sides as to prevent them when created from acquiring a commercial or utilitarian character. In other words, it has been their effort to sustain the literary quality of an education in modern subjects, and the difficulty of this effort has been aggravated by the fact that the students of modern subjects are generally excluded from the English universities. The imperative reason for the existence of modern sides in public schools resides in circumstances which lie beyond the controlling power of individuals, in the amplification of the field of human knowledge, in the appreciation of modern literature as an education, in the development of physical and mechanical industries, and in the desire of affording everybody the opportunity of cultivating the special powers which God has given him. When there were few educational subjects capable of being taught, it was natural that everybody should learn them all. But when the number of subjects has become so great that it is impossible for anybody to learn them all, or even most of them, it is evident that some sacrifice must be made, or the consequences of teaching too many subjects will be that none of them will be learnt. Nobody who has reflected upon education can well doubt that the educational problem is not the same now, or so simple, as it once was, but that it demands the recognition of a good many subjects as optional rather than compulsory. Whether the true solution will be found, as I venture to think, in making Greek an optional subject, and in allowing boys who have no aptitude for the classical languages to substitute for one of them such other subjects as history and geography, French and German, or natural science, is a question upon which opinions will certainly differ; but it is a question which invites consideration. The classical languages, if they reign at the present time, must reign like all monarchs, not by any supposed divine right, but by the right of reasonable utility. After all, there is a presumption, which cannot be set aside, in favor of such an education as people generally feel to be suited to their practical and intellectual needs. If it were as true as I believe it to be untrue, that, unless the study of Greek were secured by the legislative action of the universities, it would sink in a few years to the level of Hebrew or even of Arabic, it would be a serious question for delib-

eration whether a study which is so largely dependent upon artificial support has an absolute right to be supported. But Greek and Latin, so far as they deserve to hold the field in education, are susceptible of the same logical support as other studies; they possess a pleasure and utility of their own; they claim the homage of cultured and enlightened intellects.; and it is only because the study of Greek is imposed in some instances upon persons who derive from it neither pleasure nor utility that the place which justly belongs to it in education has ever been denied or disputed by thoughtful men.

The advocates and opponents of compulsory Greek may be said to agree in their estimate of the intellectual advantages resulting from a complete study of the Greek language and literature. But, although language may be the finest of educational instruments, and Greek the finest of languages, it does not follow that a knowledge of Greek, whether great or small, ought invariably to be exacted as a condition of entering upon academical life. It may be admitted that Greek is a language of unique flexibility and beauty, and that it offers a key to the nomenclature of some portions of the arts and sciences. It may be admitted that the literature of the Greek language, in its originality, beauty, and profundity, stands at the head of the literatures of the world. And it may even be admitted that the study of the Greek language and literature exercises, according to the ancient phrase, a mollifying influence upon human manners, although the letters of a distinguished professor, who says that he cannot imagine what he would be without Greek, may perhaps be said to have made that admission a little more dubious than it was. But it must, I think, be recognized that the benefits derived from only a slight study of Greek are such as other languages besides Greek are capable of affording, and that the benefits which Greek affords above other languages are such as demand a patient and protracted study. The pleasure or culture which is derivable from literary works, if studied in the original language rather than a translation, depends upon the faculty of reading the language itself with ease, of appreciating its subtleties, and of catching, as it were, instinctively its spirit. A person who is spelling out the grammar of a sentence does not ask if the sentence is tender or pathetic. The study of a language, like the practice of virtue in Hesiod's lines, is rugged and difficult at first, though in the end it is smooth and delightful. But the great majority of students who learn Greek, and make use of it as a title to academical education, never get

beyond the difficulties of the language; they never read a Greek book without pain and sorrow; they do not understand the distinction of Greek literature, and they give up reading it as soon as they are free from the discipline of impending examinations. Scholars to whom Homer, Sophocles and Plato are as familiar and as dear as intimate friends, cannot put themselves, without a self-denying effort, into the place of men or boys whose hearts sink within them at the sight of the most ordinary Greek aorist. It is only schoolmasters who teach, or examiners who test, the Greek of passmen that have a reasonable conception of the darkness in which the study of pass Greek (as it has been called) leaves the student.

There is one argument, as it seems to me, and perhaps one only, which, if it held good, would possess a serious validity against a relaxation of the absolute demand for Greek as a condition of entering the universities; it is that, if Greek were not compulsorily studied by all men, and among the rest by such men as are admitted to be incapable of classical scholarship, it would soon or late cease to be studied even by scholars. Such an argument is indeed an argument of despair; it takes no account of the beauties and benefits of the Greek language, but assumes, that everybody, if he could, would at once surrender the culture which it is his chief interest to acquire. But the most remarkable part of it is the impotence which it ascribes to the action of the universities. The universities exercise a controlling influence upon secondary education in England; they can make it what they wish it to be. If it were the wish of the authorities at Oxford or Cambridge to exempt undergraduates from the obligation of studying Greek in the event of their displaying a satisfactory attainment in some other recognized branch or branches of knowledge, but not to allow the exemption unless upon these terms, what could be easier than to subject all who do not offer Greek to such an examination as would insure that they had done at least as much work and acquired as much information as the students of Greek? It cannot be supposed that the educational liberals (if the opponents of compulsory Greek may be so described) would object to this examination. For what they have at heart is not to make the law of admission to the universities easier, but to make it wiser and more tolerant. They wish to open a new door of admission, but not one which is wider than the old door. They are of opinion, speaking generally, that Greek ought to be learnt by as large a number of students as can learn it with advantage, or with-

out positive loss; but experience seems to them to prove that the rigorous exaction of Greek as a condition of academical life tends to narrow the scope of education in schools and colleges, to waste the time of students who cannot become Greek scholars, and to deny them the opportunity of cultivating their natural powers in the best years of life.

The case for optional as against compulsory Greek in the universities, may, I think, be conveniently expressed in four general propositions: —

1. The number of boys in the public schools who do not learn Greek has become so large that it is undesirable to exclude them all from academical life, or to admit them to it only upon condition of their taking up a study which has not formed, and would not naturally form, a part of their education.

2. The study of Greek, if it be seriously prosecuted, occupies so great a part of a boy's school-time as to deny him the opportunity of studying other subjects which it may be important and even essential for him to know.

3. The possibility of giving an education which deserves to be regarded as liberal without the knowledge of Greek, has now for some time been proved by experience.

4. The universities will render the best service to the nation by opening their doors as widely as possible to all students who satisfy the conditions of a liberal education.

It will be appropriate to make a few remarks upon each of these four propositions.

1. It was shown by statistics which were laid before the conference of headmasters at Oxford, that the number of boys not learning Greek already amounts to one-half of the total number of boys in public schools. This is a state of things which claims the attention of all such persons as are interested in education, and of those especially who believe that education, if it is to be scientific, must be progressive. For if, in spite of the pains which have been taken at the schools and universities to maintain Greek in a position of privilege, the actual result is that not more than one-half of the boys who would have learnt it in a former generation are learning it now, it is difficult to resist the conclusion that the influences of modern life tell decisively against the universal or compulsory study of Greek. These influences are not adverse to culture. There has seldom been a time when culture in its speculative as well as in its

practical forms enjoyed a warmer regard. It is not a less elevated, but a more diversified training of the intellect that satisfies the conditions of the time. If the study of Greek is given up by persons who have made some advance in it, or, as more frequently happens, is not attempted at all, it is not because Greek is felt to be useless, but because other subjects are more useful. But in view of the close relations existing between the English public schools and universities, such a divorce or dissociation as occurs when the universities require from every undergraduate a certain knowledge which the schools do not impart to more than half their pupils is, or may at any time become, a matter of some serious consequence. It is idle to assert that no boy who does not learn Greek would in any circumstances wish to enter the universities. The assertion can be made only by one whose experience of school-life is limited. There are a good many boys who pass from the modern sides of public schools to Oxford and Cambridge at the present time, and it is probable that there would be more if Greek were an optional subject. It has often happened within my experience that the father of a boy has wished him to receive a modern education, as being suitable to his faculty or profession, or as disciplining him for after years, but has hesitated to decide upon it, because, if he went to college, it would be necessary for him to learn Greek, however little good his knowledge of Greek might do him.

The opinions of schoolmasters upon the education of boys may be fairly set beside that of parents. Schoolmasters are occupied for a great part of the year in studying the moral and intellectual character of the young. It may be said that they deserve such authority within their own sphere as specialists possess in any art or science. But a number of schoolmasters, and apparently an increasing number, hold that Greek is not the best study, or one of the best studies, for some of the boys with whom they have to do. And if this opinion be correct, it seems undesirable that these boys should be compelled either to waste time upon a study from which they will probably gain little or nothing, or to sacrifice the hope of academical life from which they will certainly gain much. To hold this opinion is not indeed to contend that the standard of matriculation at the universities should be lowered. Some educational reformers think it would be a good thing if the universities were to demand a greater culture of some kind or other than is demanded at present, from all such students as are admitted within their walls. Dr. Percival, who

has the singular advantage of having held a high position in a university as well as in a public school, has argued, I think, for the abolition of pass degrees. But while this drastic measure of reform, if it were carried out, would affect the relation of the universities as intellectual and social institutions to the national life, and would probably have the effect of narrowing their influence, which needs to be corroborated and enlarged, it may be safely said that in exact proportion to the demand for a more real culture among all students who enjoy an academical life is the reasonable claim that it should be open to them to exhibit that culture upon a wide field of intellectual subjects. So long as one subject, although excellent in itself, is imposed upon all students indiscriminately, it is impossible to exact from them all a high or even moderate standard of attainment; but if a student is allowed, within due limits, to select his subject or subjects for examination, the requisite standard can fairly be raised. And to raise the standard of intellectuality in the universities, or, in other words, to provide that a man shall not obtain an academical degree without exhibiting some positive valuable knowledge of some recognized subject or subjects of study, would be probably one of the best reforms in English education.

2. The difficulty of the educational problem may be said to depend upon one principal fact, viz., the amplification which has occurred during the past half century in the subjects of intellectual study. No human being can cope in the few brief years of school life with the mass of subjects which are capable of being taught and worthy to be learnt, and which possess an importance as educational instruments. Let these subjects be reduced to a minimum, let them be enumerated as no more than the two ancient classical languages, Greek and Latin, two modern languages, French and German, mathematics in its various forms, so far as they come within the range of a boy's faculty, two or more branches of natural science, ancient and modern history and English literature, apart from such subjects as music, art, and technical science, which occupy a serious though subordinate place in education, and it becomes evident that it is impossible for him to learn them all, except in a perfunctory manner, or to carry more than one or two of them to a high point of knowledge. But it is safe to say that of all these subjects, none is so exacting, in respect of the time which it requires for proficiency, as an ancient language. No doubt the time-tables of different schools are in some respects different, and what is true of one may

not be true of another; but it is probably safe to say that upon the classical sides of public schools, or in such schools as are predominantly classical, Greek and Latin, if systematically studied, occupy something like two-thirds of the entire time which a boy devotes to intellectual culture. It follows that this systematic study of Latin and Greek, beneficial as it may be in itself, bars the way, unless in rare and exceptional cases, to distinction or advance in other subjects. It has often been remarked that the results of public school teaching, as tested by examination at the universities or elsewhere, are more successful in respect of the classical languages than of other subjects, such as modern languages, mathematics, or natural science; but this condition of things ceases to be surprising when it is understood how preponderant is the importance still attaching to the study of classics in most public schools.

Now, if the preparation for the duties of citizenship is the proper function of the public schools, it seems to be doubtful, in view of the multiplying demands which modern life in its various aspects makes upon Englishmen, whether such a concentration of intellectual energy as this upon one subject or class of subjects, however valuable it may be in itself, is, or can well be, the true education for most boys. If the choice is between the study of two classical languages, with only a third or little more of a boy's time left for other interests, and the study of one classical language with a large opportunity of developing and cultivating those other interests, it is just and right that a number of boys should choose one classical language only. The existence of modern sides is a witness to the necessity of that choice. But, when the choice is made, it is clear that if the universities insist upon Greek, the boys who make it are either debarred from the rich advantages of academical life or are compelled, for the sake of enjoying them, to turn aside at a critical epoch of their lives from the subjects of study which have engaged their attention during their school life to one which has played no part in their intellectual training, and will be given up by them as soon as it has served its purpose of a "sesame" opening the door of the university. There seems indeed to be no escape from this dilemma, that the study of Greek, if inevitably required as a condition of academical life, either occupies so much of a boy's time and energy as to interfere with his proper culture, if he be not a boy of classical taste and acquirements, or occupies so little of his time and energy, being taken up for a few weeks only and in view of an impending

examination, that it is useless, if not, in fact, worse than useless, as a discipline of the intellectual powers.

3. It is a serious argument, then, against the exclusive claim of the classical languages, whether in universities or in public schools, that they occupy and, if adequately studied, ought to occupy, so large a portion of the hours available for teaching, as to forbid or, at least, to prejudice, the gaining of knowledge which is more or less important to all boys, and to some boys is actually indispensable. The sacrifice of high attainment in mathematics, natural science, or the literature of modern languages, or in more than one of these subjects, for a moderate proficiency in Greek is not a sacrifice which all boys ought to make. It cannot be said to be a necessary law of receiving such an education as deserves to be called liberal. It is true that the phrase, "a liberal education," although it is freely used, is hardly ever defined; it is one of those phrases which are imposing in virtue of their indefiniteness. But it may perhaps be said to mean such an education as befits and inclines a man to take an elevated or enlightened rather than a simply commercial view of life. Has it, then, been demonstrated that the classical languages are the only subjects of an elevating or enlightening character? They enjoy the advantage of an established popularity, they have been taught for so long a time and by so many persons, that it has become comparatively easy to teach them, and it is apt to be assumed that the results which they confessedly produce are such as they alone are capable of producing. It becomes, therefore, a practical question to consider what are the results of an education in modern subjects. And here it is fortunately possible to appeal to the experience of modern sides in public schools. Modern sides are not educational novelties, but have existed for a number of years in most great schools, and there ought to be no serious difficulty in deciding whether such an education as is given in them has been liberal and liberalizing in its effect. No doubt it has sometimes happened that modern sides have been prejudiced in comparison with the classical sides of public schools. They have been made the receptacles for the intellectual dullness which is as common in a school as in the world, and then, when none but dull boys have been admitted to them, it has been urged against them that they turned out none but dull boys. The first condition of successfully organizing a modern side is to make admission to it not less easy,—I would even say, a little more difficult,—than admission to the

classical side. When this condition is fulfilled, the consciousness of intellectual inferiority, which has hung like a millstone about the neck of modern sides, gives place to an honorable self-respect. It is evident that the education on a modern side, although it excludes Greek, admits considerable variations: in one case, the study of modern languages will predominate, in another that of natural science, in another that of mathematics, and so on. It is evident, too, that, where the education is rightly organized, no one subject will be permitted to engage the whole, or the main part, of a boy's time. There will be the same correlation of subjects, although not of the same subjects, as upon a classical side. Especially will the supremacy of language and literature as educational instruments be kept in view. But speaking generally, with the experience of a school in which a modern education has been tried on a large scale, I may give it as my clear opinion that the boys who have been educated in modern subjects deserve to be accredited with a liberal education in the same sense and to the same extent as other boys. In their intellectual characteristics, so far as I can estimate them, they are not altogether like the classical boys; but they are not inferior. Those of them who rise to a high position in the school, and who may therefore stand in comparison with the best classicists, know Latin well enough to read and appreciate it without difficulty, although they have no skill worth speaking of in composition; they know French and German, not indeed always with conversational facility, but better than most of the classicists know Greek; their knowledge of English history is excellent; they have some considerable knowledge of modern history and literature in general, and it is often the case that they are well advanced in mathematics, or natural science, or other subjects. They are, in many instances, boys of keen and active intelligence. In the range of their culture and the discipline of their mental powers, they are the equals of boys who have received a classical education; in the intellectual interest which they feel in their studies, they are not infrequently superior. They win their share of the prizes and distinctions which are accorded to intellectual merit in public schools. If it is necessary to mention one particular point in which they sometimes fall below their classical rivals, it may be said to be the habit of accuracy, of perseverance, and of sustained and concentrated attention to a subject which is not at once interesting and attractive, but demands a large amount of patient painstaking effort, if it is to be effectively

pursued. However, it is not my purpose in the present paper to contend that the classical and modern systems of education are absolutely equal in value or in merit. It is enough if the modern system deserves to be called liberal, if it evokes and disciplines the powers of the human intellect, if it is an adequate preparation for life. For if this be the case, it seems to follow that such a system, as indisputably answering to the needs of a large number of students, may look to the universities for the recognition which is implied in an academical degree.

4. It is not unknown to me that an unhappy schoolmaster is sure to incur the rebuke of some professors or professorially minded people, if he ventures from his scholastic desk to offer a remark upon the function of the great universities. But it cannot, I hope, be wrong for him to say that he looks upon an academical education as being the most beneficial for his pupils, if it be open to them, in the anxious days when they have just passed out of his hands, and that the larger the number of them who go from school to college, the better it seems to be alike for them and for him. He cannot help, therefore, regretting such regulations as wholly or partially close the door of the universities against boys who have attained a high position in their public schools. Among the educational changes of the present century none is more striking, at least in England, than the expansion of the influence which the universities exercise upon the country. By the abolition of religious tests, they have been nationalized and made commensurate with the national life. By the diminution of academical expenses and the principle of non-collegiate life, they have brought the charm of their historic associations to bear upon classes of men who in old days would not have dreamed of going to college. By the affiliation of provincial institutions they have mitigated that obligation of residence which was a difficulty in the way of poor and hard-working students. The great and successful scheme of university extension lectures has set the universities in direct intellectual contact and sympathy with the industrial centres of population. And it has been the happy fortune of the universities to offer shelter and support from early days to that beneficent cause which is now as widely approved as only a few years ago it was abused — viz., the cause of the higher education of women.

It is in the spirit of the age that men and women should desire with an ever-increasing urgency the benefit of an academical educa-

tion. That desire is one of the healthiest signs of the age. They who have been brought under the spell of a great university are not the same men and women as before. Their minds are disciplined, elevated, and refined. If it should appear, then, that in the circumstances of modern life it is impossible to retain Greek as a necessary or permanent element of such education as deserves to be called liberal, that would be a reason for exempting students who are proficient in some subject, or subjects, of liberal education from the necessity of studying Greek. Even now the universities do not demand that men should study Greek throughout their academical years, but only that they should be examined in it before or soon after beginning them. It is not improbable, then, that a consideration of the educational problem will soon or late lead to the conclusion that it is better for all students to learn some liberal subject, or subjects, well, than for all to learn the same subject, although most of them learn it badly.

This paper has naturally been written from the point of view of the public schools as the recognized homes from which the majority of students enter the universites. But the cause which it supports is strengthened by the circumstances of men who are not educated in public schools, nor subjected from early days to the influences of classical learning, and yet who, from honorable motives, are induced, often at a later than the average age of students, to desire the advantage of an academical education and the recognition of an academical degree. To such men the obligation of studying Greek as well as Latin presents a well-nigh insuperable difficulty. However, the decision of the Greek question rests, or ought to rest, with the authorities of the universities; and, having said what it seems desirable to say upon it, I gladly leave the decision in their hands. — *The Contemporary Review.*

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION.

LILLIAN LEE GARDNER, BRIDGEPORT, CONN.

THE phrase, University Extension, dates back to the discussions on university reform which took place in England just before 1850. Its animating principle points to a still earlier origin. It is recorded in a fourteenth century college (Clare, 1341) endowment deed at Cambridge, that the institution was "founded out of a desire to see the number of students increased, to the end that knowledge, a pearl of great price, when they have found it and made it their own by instruction and study in the aforesaid university, may not be hidden under a bushel, but be spread abroad beyond the university, and thereby give light to them that walk in the dark byways of ignorance."

Thus, the present century cannot claim for its own the idea of the great universities as the sources from which (in the words of Mr. Morley), "the fertilising waters of intellectual knowledge should be diffused by a thousand irrigating channels over the whole length and breadth of our busy and indomitable land."

The pioneers of the present movement in England were women, who in their desire for higher education formed associations for the purpose of bringing professors from the universities to give courses of lectures to women only. In 1867, in connection with classes of lady teachers held in Liverpool, Manchester, Sheffield and Leeds, Professor Stuart, the practical organizer of University Extension, developed three characteristic features of University Extension teaching: (1) a weekly lecture; (2) the use of a printed syllabus; (3) voluntary written papers. Later, he formed similar classes for working men and cooperative societies in the north of England, and finally developed the class, the fourth and most useful feature of University Extension. It was not, however, until 1873, when Cambridge recognized this new educational system, that the fifth feature, the final written examination, was added. This, in brief, is the early history of the movement for the higher education of the people which has been so effective in removing prejudices and revolutionizing public opinion.

The idea of extending the teaching of the universities sprang up in the universities themselves, but it was not until the people of England, in their hunger for intellectual food, reached out their hands, that the universities opened their storehouses and in true missionary spirit sent out their teachers to the remote places of the land. During the past two years in England alone, 40,000 men and women have been touched, broadened, and humanized by contact with these great centres of learning.

University Extension has been defined as advanced systematic teaching for the people, without distinction of rank, sex, or age, given by means of lectures, classes, and written papers during a connected course conducted by teachers who connect the country with the university by manner, method, and information; or, as Mr. Moulton puts it: "University education for the whole nation by an itinerant system connected with the old universities."

The teaching is done by a series of weekly lectures on one general subject. Twelve lectures constitute the unit course. Single lectures, or series of lectures on disconnected subjects, are never given.

A printed syllabus or outline of the lectures, is put into the hands of every student. It serves as a sort of text-book, and does away with note-taking. It is a clear analysis of the subject under consideration and indicates methods of procedure in logical study. The list of reference books given economizes the student's time and means, and helps in the preparation of weekly papers. It also aids in home reading after the lecture course has been completed. One of the hardest and most pathetic things in the lot of a young working man endeavoring to educate himself is the waste of time and money which ignorance of the best books on any subject and lack of guidance frequently occasion. A story is told of a Cleveland miner who wished to know something of natural history, and, out of his modest earnings, spent a couple of pounds in the purchase of Goldsmith's "Animated Nature."

The weekly paper, which is voluntary, is based on the questions placed at the close of the syllabus. The papers are sent to the lecturer, who returns them with comments before the succeeding lecture. The object of these written excercises is to help students to acquire correct habits of study rather than to test the memory. In the class which precedes or follows each lecture, students are brought into closer relations with the lecturer who there becomes

the teacher pure and simple. By skilful questioning, the elaboration of details, the explanation of difficult points, and the contact of mind with mind, the class, combined with student's associations, becomes the stronghold of University Extension.

Students' associations arose from the peculiar nature of the audiences. Primarily, their object was to bind students together to continue study after the course was over. They form a nucleus for courses during successive years, and are especially valuable in the discussion of difficult points arising in connection with the class and the weekly papers.

Those students who have handed in the weekly paper may become candidates for the final examination which is given, not by the lecturer, but by an examiner appointed by the university. Certificates are granted to all who stand this test. At a recent examination in England, certificates of distinction were given to a national school-mistress, a young lawyer, a plumber, and a railway-signalman.

A late development of the movement is the affiliation of local centres with the universities. To enjoy the privileges of affiliation a student must have attended eight unit courses, prepared the weekly papers, and passed the final examination. As a proof of proper elementary preparation, a further examination is given in mathematics, Latin, and one other language. The affiliated student is excused the previous examination and one year's residence at the university is remitted, thus enabling the student to complete the university course in two years.

Home reading circles and the summer school are recent outgrowths of University Extension. The summer schools at Oxford and Cambridge differ totally in method. Cambridge is for the few University Extension students who wish to continue study along given lines, and to avail themselves of thoroughly equipped laboratories. Oxford opens her doors to all, whether University Extension students or not. The lectures are of general interest and attract a varied company.

Mr. Henderson, Secretary of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, in his report of these meetings says, that the lectures do not constitute the whole benefit which the students derive from their visit. Lectures they can hear at home, but to be able to wander in and out of those quaint buildings and taste the inspiration which only a place like Oxford has to offer, is a priv-

ilege not frequently enjoyed. In the course of their stay they are brought into contact with the associations with which Oxford teems, which element is in itself a liberal education, and renders the summer meeting of inestimable value. Those attending this meeting are not by any means confined to the better classes. More than twenty scholarships are offered in order to enable the very poor to attend.

Ten years ago who would have thought of hearing the miners from the north of England speak in the halls of Oxford? Yet these very men, who drop their h's when they should pronounce them and add them where they should not, may stand side by side with the Oxford dons debating questions concerning the future of the movement. The force with which they speak well merits the ovation they receive when the chairman announces that some well-esteemed workingman from —— has the floor.

These summer days at Oxford are full of interest to a looker-on. He is wrapped round as it were by the subtle spirit that breathes in the rustling ivies and the grand old treetops. He is unconsciously uplifted in this atmosphere of great personalities. What it brings to the earnest seeker after knowledge is well expressed by one of the students, who says, "Year after year, the corporate feeling grows. The same people come up year after year and greet one another as old friends. There is an exhilarating sense of universal brotherhood about the whole meeting which is truly unlike anything else with which we are acquainted. We are conscious of a wide and deep basis of common interests, and we are all eager to give and to get hints for the furtherance of our work."

University Extension is preëminently popular education since it is for the whole nation. Three classes of adults are reached by it: (1) persons of leisure who are at home during the day; (2) self-supporting men and women; (3) artisans. It has been in active operation in England for eighteen years. In the United States it is less than two years old. The beginnings of the University Extension movement were contemporary in England and America. Between the years 1800 and 1810, Dr. George B. Birkbeck of England, and Professor Silliman, of Yale University, inaugurated those courses of lectures for working people which later led to the establishment of Mechanics' Institutes, the development of which is so closely connected with that of University Extension.

Thus the idea of a higher education for the people has been prevalent among us since Professor Silliman began his extraordinary work

in New Haven; but University Extension, as we know it to-day, is a recent development, an outgrowth of English experience, and differs essentially from all previous attempts to educate the masses in the personal element of its teaching. Its rapid growth in America has undoubtedly been aided by such educational organizations as the American Lyceums, Teachers' Institutes, Farmers' Institutes, and the like. More direct influence may be traced to the work at Chautauqua, an educational development peculiarly American, and one which has suggested to England several phases of University Extension. With us the unit course rarely exceeds six lectures. Less paper work is done than at Oxford, and there is no affiliation of local centres with the universities.

In November, 1890, the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching was organized in Philadelphia, the most active centre of the movement in this country. The motto of the society is "Help people to help themselves." To help people to help themselves is to bring higher interests into their lives, to lift them above the commonplace, largely utilitarian point of view of a material age. The need of higher education is not confined to the laboring and artisan classes. It is not the workingman's mind only that needs it, it is not alone the life of monotonous work which requires the introduction of higher interests, but the varied life of idle amusement, with desultory magazine and novel-reading for its most serious business, is quite as much in need of something of the kind; and there is still a third kind of existence — more common perhaps, now-a-days, than even the latter—which might gain some useful help from the movement,— the life of busy philanthropy. Hundreds of young women who become secretaries of societies and members of committees of all sorts — artistic, literary, scientific, charitable — for improving the condition of their poorer fellow-creatures, are assisted in their labors by opportunities of getting the best teaching on many subjects bearing a close relation to the different spheres of their activity. They find light thrown on the social difficulties of the present by a wider and truer knowledge of the past, out of which the present has grown. Their minds and judgments, as well as those of working men, are the better for the refining and purifying influence of closer acquaintance with those inspired teachers of the past whom the universities have not yet brought down to the level of to-day. It is also conceivable that a wider and more systematic knowledge of some branches of science than they have prob-

ably acquired in the school-room, may be of use to them in coping with social evils, so many of which are in great measure brought about by ignorance of the physical laws of the universe.

It is a significant fact that University Extension is the third great literary movement which has sprung up in the Midland Counties of England at an interval of about two hundred years. The present movement, unlike its predecessors, is purely interpretative. It is a "missionary movement" whose purpose is not only to gain culture but also to share it with others.

ENGLISH IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

R. H. ALVEY, MARYLAND AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

AMONG the many and great improvements in the educational systems of the present day, when the true meaning and objects of education are becoming more fully understood, not the least has been the higher place assigned to the study of English in our colleges and universities. New chairs have been established, new methods have taken the place of the old hap-hazard manner of instruction, and the eyes of educators have been opened to its immense importance, and its great value as an instrument for mental development. There has been a radical change of opinion as to the ends of the study, and a radical change of methods, consequent upon that change of opinion. English literary history has asserted its claims to a more perfect recognition, and English grammar has come to be regarded as a science. Such being the case, it becomes necessary for the public schools to adapt themselves to these changed conditions.

English has been too little understood as a separate part of the course, probably from a lack of appreciation of the relative values of certain common-school branches. The objects of the study of English seem to be three-fold. First, it is to be studied as a medium for the acquisition of knowledge and the expression of thought. Secondly, it is to be used as an instrument for mental development. Thirdly, it must serve as a means of gaining that correct usage of the mother-tongue, which is one of the first outward signs of an education. The first two of these ends are gained simultaneously, the language is acquired as the mind develops; but, as a rule, the

last, correct usage, or, to use the popular expression, "good grammar," is the chief and often the only one considered. If we are to believe the statements of grammarians, the whole aim and purpose of the study of English is "to speak and write the English language correctly." And yet this is a very subordinate object, and, at best, a doubtful one. How many of those who pass through the public schools do learn to speak and write their mother-tongue correctly by studying English grammar? True, if they remain at school long enough they do learn to speak and write with some degree of accuracy, but they acquire but little of that correct usage from their English text-books. Correct usage comes mainly by imitation. Grammar is hardly a factor at all. Indeed, the scholar learns more of practical English — so to speak — from his other books than from his grammar. But, after all, it is his surroundings and associations that determine how the child will speak. No other influence does or can have so much to do with the matter; no other consideration has so much weight. Herein lies the teacher's chance — he can control those associations to a great degree. Every child has within him so keen an appreciation of what is sound and true, takes so great an interest in what is truly beautiful, that the opportunity to encourage that appreciation, and to minister to that interest is too precious ever to be lost.

The first and primary object of the study of English, is its use as a medium. The term English as I here use it, includes all those studies which relate to the history and use of the language, from the alphabet or reading chart, to those higher branches not usually taught in the public schools: and the main use of each and every one of those is to furnish material, all along the line, for expressing new ideas and for conveying new thoughts to the growing mind. Language is the means, the medium by which all knowledge is acquired. It makes no difference whether acquired by experience or presented as matter of fact, the thought must assume some intelligible form, must have some distinctive characteristics or utterance, before it can be properly placed and retained in the mind. Whatever is learned by the bare exercise of the senses is put into language before it is used. Whatever the child is taught of science, or history, or mathematics, he must have presented to him in language. Whatever inquiry he enters upon, whatever investigation he attempts to make, language must be the instrument with which that inquiry or investigation is pursued. The child is a living organism, growing and expanding inwardly as the years go by. His range of

thought is continually widening, his understanding continually deepening. His faculties are all the while gradually developing; he analyzes, compares, decides. New fields of knowledge present themselves to his mental vision; he experiences new sights and sounds, and sensations. Constantly growing from within, he yet obtains the material for that growth from without; and the only communication which he has with this outside world is by means of language. It is the key to almost all comprehension. To call an object by its proper name seems a very simple thing, yet it requires at least three distinct mental operations, and each of these three operations has to deal with language.

For every stage of the child's mental growth a certain amount of language is thus required; but this is not all — the quality of that language is to be considered. We are to supply words, but what words? Evidently just such as he needs — exactly those and no others. It is a common fault to teach children to speak grammatically before teaching them to speak fluently; to allow them to pick up words and expressions, as best they can, and then to attempt to correct and work these into shape by the use of arbitrary rules. If a little more attention were given to this matter, perhaps there would be less occasion for trying to terrify the pupil into good English by cautions and examples of false syntax.

Our first requisite, then, is fluency, ease of expression, readiness of speech. The scholar should be taught to be master of the language, to have it at his command; he must be shown its deep resources, its possibilities and powers. Let him acquire a vocabulary. Daily new words are needed to express new ideas; daily new objects, actions, and thoughts arise which must be put into language, for mental preservation. The acquisition of such a vocabulary is, of course, a work of time, but time so spent is never lost. A child is frequently called stupid and is said to be without memory, or he is thought to be lazy or sullen, because he fails to answer questions, or does not answer them intelligibly, when the real reason is that he has no words in his slim vocabulary with which to express himself. "I know what I want to say, but I can't say it," is an excuse as pathetic as it is common.

In the lower grades of the public schools the better methods of language-making have been more generally adopted than further on in the course. And here one word more as to English grammar. It is a technical science, and a difficult one; at that, it is properly one of the finishing touches to a liberal education. When a pretty gen-

eral idea of the various component parts of the language has been obtained, when it can be used fluently and easily, it is then time to classify and arrange its parts according to some carefully formulated plan. The definitions crowded into the brains of young pupils, the rules and cautions forced upon them without any reason being assigned for their existence, and the classifications and generalizations that are prematurely presented, serve only to bewilder and dwarf the mental powers, and to render expression weak and artificial. Such study inverts the order of nature, putting the abstract before the concrete. The mind must be formed before it can be polished. The study of technical grammar is not a forming but a polishing instrument.

A true knowledge of English is historical: "old English is the key to modern English." The language is so composite in its character, and exhibits so perfect an example of evolutionary growth, that no one stage of it can be rightly comprehended without going back to its primitive sources, and following its changes and varying forms. A Saxon language in its frame-work, it yet has enough of the Latin element in its structure to ally it with the Romance tongues. Many of its words being of peculiar local signification, or the outgrowth of peculiar social institutions, a study of these customs and institutions is almost necessary for its proper understanding.

The historical study of the English language includes: first, the study of word formations, stems, prefixes and suffixes; second, the study of its growth and development; third, the study of its literature. A persistent drill in word analysis is essential, since at least thirty per cent of our words are of Latin origin, coming either directly from the Latin, or indirectly through the French, and about five per cent are of Greek origin. A knowledge of these languages is not, however, to be considered necessary to the proper study of English. There is no reason why stems and affixes — at least those which are most common — cannot be taught without the slightest reference to the language from which they are derived. The advantage of careful and constant word analysis consists in the avoidance thereby of many faulty and verbose definitions, for, of course, the words so learned are self-explanatory. Added to this there is an immense saving of memory exertion: and yet, as a general thing, words are taught as mere arbitrary forms.

In teaching the English language as a growth, it will be necessary to resort to the first record of the Aryan languages in European

countries, passing thence to the various changes which political movements effected in the speech of our ancestors, until something like modern English was established. The development from that point to the present day, is found to be comparatively uneventful, but not devoid of interest. Each political crisis, each great intellectual movement, has added something and taken something away. The influence of foreign languages, the literary and social tendencies of successive generations, have all left their impress upon it and aided in its formation, until the English of the days of Mandeville and Chaucer and Gower is to the uninitiated of the nineteenth century almost as a foreign tongue, and requires a glossary for its reading. There is no study more calculated to excite interest in the young than this: old words and forms call up old fancies, old legends and old world customs. To trace an obsolete word back to its origin is a task full of delight and by no means unprofitable; it combines all the requirements of a perfect educational exercise.

As the language itself has been evolved from the heterogeneous mass of dialects and provincialisms to which it largely owes its origin, so will the mind of the student of its growth, if carefully guided, gradually expand and open up its powers. The more immediate effect is seen in the greater purity of his English. By seeing how words came to be used, he learns how rightly to use them; by observing how synonyms have accumulated, he begins to exercise discrimination in their use: and when, in the course of time, he comes to recognize the great truth that the language is still living, and growing in strength and depth and power, the effect will be seen in the care and pride with which he guards his expressions, and in his choice of what is soundest and best, to the exclusion of the weak and senseless colloquialisms of the day.

The third and of course the most important object of the historical study of English is to gain familiarity with the best English writers. Besides inculcating a desire for good reading, this is the most efficacious way of providing the pupil with a vocabulary and teaching him expression. There is not much time for reading during the working hours of a school day, but if all the little time that there is be utilized, a really considerable amount might be accomplished in the three or four years spent by the average child at public schools. No text-book is required for this work, — let the teacher take its place. Text-books on English literature are generally rather unsatisfactory. Mere extracts, too, are generally to be avoided, as they lack unity which alone renders a work intelligible.

With the author and the work selected, no word should be allowed to pass whose meaning is not clearly understood; the constant use of the dictionary is absolutely essential to the success of the exercise. At the close of this reading a brief abstract of what has been read should follow, and, if time allows, a general discussion of style and subject matter. With the older authors, uncommon usages and etymological differences will afford material for interesting and profitable research.

The history of English literature is quite another matter, and belongs properly to the higher grades; but wherever it is taught, too much care can not be observed, too much pains can not be taken, to see that each name mentioned and each work discussed be given its exact value in the history of the gradual growth of the language. The best plan is to take some one author as the type or representative of his times, and to group around him such of his contemporaries as it is necessary to mention at all. Thus we may divide the whole field of English literature into a few important periods, aiding memory, and clearly indicating the relative place and value of each individual.

Whatever the particular method employed in teaching English in the public schools, these two great ends are always to be kept in view: the comprehension of the English language as one great unfinished growth, and the acquisition of a carefully selected and sufficient vocabulary, to enable the young scholar to express his ideas fluently, intelligibly, and accurately.

TWO GENTLEMEN OF VERONA.

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In studying the development of Shakespeare's plays, there is perhaps none more interesting than Two Gentlemen of Verona. Previous to this, in Love's Labour's Lost, in The Comedy of Errors, and in A Midsummer Night's Dream, Shakespeare had depicted, with a somewhat uncertain touch, an unreal world. In this play we see a marked advance, both in matter and in conception. The hand is more sure and the figures are no longer those of dreamland. The

progress of the play does not depend upon caprice of fortune or the tricks of fairies, but upon the actions and feelings of responsible men and women.

This play is, however, not only interesting as we advance to it from the earlier ones, but it is also instructive as we return to it after having read the comedies of a later date. Showing as it does so clearly such a marked improvement over the first three, it is, nevertheless, in comparison with those that follow it, immature and sketchy. Shakespeare himself seems to have considered it only partly developed, for he again and again expands its scenes and motives in later plays.

The two servants, Speed and Launce, seem to have been assigned to their masters upon the principle of opposites, the witty Speed to the rather slow Valentine, and the generous Launce to the selfish Proteus. Launce, with his dog Crab, is by far the more individual and the more attractive. We find him again, grown to his full stature, in Launcelot Gobbo. These servants, while they lighten the play with their humor, are also serviceable in showing by comment and by contrast, their masters' characters.

Valentine and Proteus, the heroes, if such they can be called, represent in their actions the struggle between love and friendship. We see the same conflict developed at length in the Sonnets, which were in private circulation when Two Gentlemen of Verona was written. Shakespeare himself knew what it was to be drawn in two opposite directions by friendship and by love, and what was more natural than that he should embody, almost unconsciously, his own experience in his drama?

These characters are drawn far more distinctly than are the Athenian lovers in A Midsummer Night's Dream. Proteus in the very first scene exhibits his selfishness by refusing to pay Speed for delivering a message. What could be more formal and heartless than the parting interview with Julia, or what could be brighter than the method which Shakespeare uses to emphasize this coldness? Launce's description of his own sad farewell, by means of its excessive emotion makes most evident the lack of feeling in Proteus. Later on, when Proteus has fallen in love with Silvia, he shows his treacherous disposition by deceiving Valentine, Thurio, and the Duke. The keynote of his character is selfishness and in his soliloquy, he cooly acknowledges that

"I to myself am dearer than a friend."

Shakespeare uses Launce again to bring out this trait, for that unfortunate servant, having been robbed of the little dog which Proteus was sending to Silvia, generously offers her his own beloved Crab, "a dog as big as ten" of the lost one, and therefore the greater gift.

In Valentine we have the opposite of Proteus. He possesses more qualities of the heart than of the head. He is so open in his love for Silvia, that Speed warns him that "Not an eye that sees you but is a physician to comment on your malady." The witty servant also gives him many of those signs of a lover which we learn again from Rosalind's lips. When Silvia artfully induces him to write a letter for her to himself, he becomes so confused that Speed has to come to the rescue and explain the lady's desire to him. He is easily deceived by Proteus's wiles and is utterly routed by the more violent measures of the Duke. He is not all that could be desired in his actions, although this is perhaps more his misfortune than his fault. But in words, in expressing his love for Silvia, he appears to better advantage. The generosity and frankness of his affection shows the beginning of that character which developed into Romeo. Their speech is in places almost identical. Of banishment, Valentine says,

> "And why not death rather than living torment?
> To die, is to be banished from myself;
> And Silvia is myself: banished from her
> Is self from self, — a deadly banishment."

and Romeo cries,

> "Hence banished is banished from the world,
> And world's exile is death; — then banishment
> Is death mis-term'd."

In exile, as captain of a band of outlaws, he recalls at once the Duke and his banished comrades in As You Like It. It goes without saying that Shakespeare has given the latter a more prominent position in the play, and has expended more care in developing their characters. He has also added the musical Amiens and the melancholy Jacques. All these, however, are but improvements upon the original theme. The reconciliation between Valentine and Proteus is unlike anything in any other play. There have been various hypotheses to account for this blemish. One critic suggests that we have but a mere sketch of the scene, while another surmises that we have it as it was cut for the stage. However that may be, it is a defect in the play. It is too sudden and too romantic. We have a

famous reconciliation in Cymbeline in which Posthumus forgives Iachimo, but Shakespeare leads up to it, he prepares our minds for it, and gives us the beginnings of Iachimo's misgivings and the cause of his repentance. There is no preparation of this kind in Two Gentlemen of Verona, and the reconciliation and Valentine's rash offer of Silvia come upon us with a shock. The only place where we can trace any resemblance to this is in the Sonnets, where Shakespeare gives up his love to his friendship. There, however, we have none of this feeling of unnaturalness, because we see the long struggle in Shakespeare's mind, while in the play we see the result only. Again, in the Sonnets, the woman was unworthy, — Shakespeare himself calls her his "black angel" — and it was a distinct moral triumph for him to put her out of his life. But according to Valentine, Silvia is "a heavenly saint" and it therefore strikes us as a great blunder for him even to offer to give her up.

In Silvia and Julia, as in Valentine and Proteus, we have a characterization according to mind and heart. There can be no doubt that Silvia is the more acute. She understands Valentine's dumb speech, and devises a suitable way to answer him. She is the only one who rightly estimates Proteus;

> "Thou subtle, perjur'd, false, disloyal man!
> Think'st thou I am so shallow, so conceitless,
> To be seduced by thy flattery?"

She has the wit which Shakespeare bestows so bountifully on later heroines, Beatrice and Rosalind. There is, however, a certain hardness about her, perhaps intentional on Shakespeare's part, perhaps due to his own immaturity.

Julia is the one to whom we give most admiration, and she indeed deserves it. For she is generous and self-sacrificing, even to a fault. Shakespeare himself was evidently fond of the character, for he rewrote almost every incident and motive and incorporated them in three or four later plays. Her conversation with Lucetta in regard to her lovers reminds one of the similar discussion between Portia and Nerissa. The Lady of Belmont had a greater number of suitors and they came from foreign lands, therefore she can talk at greater length and with more wit than the less favored Julia. The incident of the ring also, both in its bestowal and in the use made of it in unravelling the plot, was worked out to completeness in The Merchant of Venice.

Julia in

> " such weeds
> As may beseem some well-reputed page,"

recalls Portia and Rosalind. The resemblance, however, is one of attire. The women are very different. Portia finds enjoyment in such masquerading: —

> " I'll hold thee any wager,
> I'll prove the prettier fellow of the two,
> And wear my dagger with the braver grace."

While Rosalind will "have a swashing and a martial outside." But Julia is troubled in her mind.

> " Let me have
> What thou think'st meet and is most mannerly:
> But tell me, wench, how will the world repute me
> For undertaking so unstaid a journey?"

We can scarcely imagine Portia as troubled about the world's opinion of the " young and learned doctor." And if Rosalind was for a moment in doubt as to what she should do with her doublet and hose, she soon got over her perplexity. The serene courage born of strength which belonged to Portia, and the abounding spirits of Rosalind, are lacking in Julia. She is much more like Viola in Twelfth Night, and the incidents attending her service of Proteus are the same as those of Viola while page to the Duke. Both masters comment upon the beauty of their pages, both have implicit confidence in them, entrust them with the secret of their love and send them on errands to their rivals. Julia and Viola exhibit the same submission in performing this task and the same desire to look upon the other woman. Viola says, " Good madam, let me see your face," and is obliged to admit that it is " Excellently done, if God did all." Julia gazes upon Silvia's picture, and remarks:

> " I think
> If I had such a tire, this face of mine
> Were full as lovely as is this of hers."

We see then, that the plot of Two Gentlemen of Verona bears a striking resemblance to the Sonnets, and that it contains the germs of incidents, motives and characters which were expanded and developed in As You Like it, The Merchant of Venice, Romeo and Juliet, and Twelfth Night. Thus by comparison with these various plays we can readily perceive the gradual growth of Shakespeare's art and of his conception of character.

WAS HAMLET INSANE AND PRETENDING INSANITY?

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So much has been written upon the question of Hamlet's insanity that it is to be doubted if Shakespeare himself, were he to return and read the voluminous mass of contradictory interpretations, would not be puzzled to know just what he did mean when he wrote the play. It may be that he would enjoy a quiet chuckle over the fact that when he wrote he had no idea so many diverse opinions could be garnered from his words. It is, however, more consoling to our belief in Shakespeare's greatness, to think that he was conscious of his theme and fully cognizant of its intricacies.

In the discussion of the question, "Was Hamlet insane or pretending insanity?" there has been "much throwing about of brains," and the battle has been waged with bitterness by the advocates of each extreme. Instead of debating the old and threadbare question, "Was Hamlet insane *or* pretending insanity?" let us, by the change of a single word, so centralize the thought, that the warring currents shall unite into one. Note the change that is made by the substitution of "and" for "or." "Was Hamlet insane *and* pretending insanity?" Indeed a tremendous theme for a mind like Shakespeare's. An insane man pretending insanity! This is the key which will unlock the mystery of Hamlet's character, the plummet which will sound him to his lowest depths, the compromise which will unite the opposing currents into one grand stream.

That Hamlet was pretending insanity, the lines of the play make so manifest that it were absurd to deny it. The lines in Act I., Scene v. :—

> "How strange or odd so e'er I bear myself,
> As I, perchance, hereafter shall think meet
> To put an antick disposition on, "etc.,

show the germination in Hamlet's mind of the idea of pretended insanity. The dialogue in Act III., Scene iii., between Polonius and Hamlet, in which, after discussing the shape of a cloud, Hamlet says, aside, "They fool me to the top of my bent," indicates an

exultation, on Hamlet's part, that they thought him crazy, and therefore humored him. The interview between Hamlet and his mother proves beyond doubt that Hamlet intended to simulate insanity. The lines, "It is not madness that I have uttered," and "I essentially am not in madness, but mad in craft," are so explicit that no doubt can arise concerning them. Allowing, thus, the truth of the assertions of one side, what effect does it have upon the assertions of the other? None whatever! It is as undoubtedly true that Hamlet was insane, as that he was pretending to be so.

The play teems with evidence of this insanity; evidence which is, however, in many places, complicated by Hamlet's pretentions. It is manifest that evidence taken from scenes in which it is Hamlet's purpose and desire to "put an antick disposition on," must be looked upon with doubt, and that the main evidence must come from the general action of the play, from scenes where Hamlet is alone, or with his trusted friend Horatio, or where he would have no object in manifesting his mad craft.

The first appearance of Hamlet shows him as one afflicted with a melancholy so profound as to be noticeable to all observers; for this his mother chides him, "Good Hamlet, cast thy nighted color off." Thus the king speaks of it:

> ——— "to persever
> In obstinate condolement is a course
> Of impious stubbornness; 'tis unmanly grief:
> It shows a will most incorrect to Heaven;
> A heart unfortified, or *mind impatient:*
> An understanding simple and unschooled."

Hamlet's first soliloquy shows a mind diseased; not necessarily insane, but of a melancholic tendency which alienists recognize as a precursor, if not the first stage, of insanity. When a young man, two months after his father's death, becomes so melancholic as seriously to contemplate suicide, his mind can not be considered normal. This is a point all experts in insanity will admit. In his soliloquy Hamlet has no reason to deceive, he has not yet seen the ghost; his thoughts then are his natural ones; or it would be better to say his unnatural ones, for they are not natural to any healthy mind.

> "O, that this too too solid flesh would melt,
> Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew:
> Oh that the Everlasting had not fixed

His canon 'gainst self-slaughter! O God! O God!
How weary, stale, flat and unprofitable
Seem to me all the uses of this world!"

It is well to state that the non-medical mind is ignorant of, and therefore unable to appreciate, the delicate shades of insanity. By the laity no one is considered insane unless he show manifest symptoms of derangement; but the student of medicine knows that the most subtle and often the most dangerous forms of insanity do not always present gross signs, and are, in fact, often recognizable only by experts. Hamlet's case is, in its general symptoms, described as accurately as if written for a medical journal, and it is an argument of great weight that few, if any, insanity experts have studied the play without pronouncing Hamlet insane.

We may reasonably suppose that previous to his father's death Hamlet was much like other young men and enjoyed life as they did. We know that he had been familiar with the players, that he was an expert swordsman, and his promise to teach his companions to drink deep ere they depart from Elsinore would indicate that he was not unfamiliar with that method of enjoyment. All this is changed after his father's death. He becomes gloomy and morose, and subject to most profound melancholy. When, upon a mind so oppressed, is cast the weight of the ghost's hideous disclosures, would it be reasonable to expect any other result than insanity? It seems to me that Shakespeare, by laying such stress upon Hamlet's melancholy, prepares the way for his insanity, and indicates the line on which his own thought developed. To permit Hamlet's already overburdened mind to withstand the added shock of the ghost's recital would be, in my opinion, a much grosser dramatic error than to make both the hero and heroine insane. It would be not only a dramatic error, but a physical and intellectual error, of which, it seems to me, Shakespeare's genius would not permit him to be guilty. That Horatio was aware of the effect the ghost might have upon Hamlet, is proved by his words when he beseeches him not to follow it.

"What if it tempt you toward the flood, my lord,

* * * * * * * *

And there assume some other horrible form
Which might deprive your sovereignty of *reason*,
And draw you into madness?"

Hamlet's soliloquy after the ghost's departure and his wild actions on first meeting his friends, show a mind unbalanced and distraught. His sudden breaking off in the current of his denunciations to jot down the trivial observation that one could "smile and smile and be a villain," is characteristic of an insane mind. The sudden jumping back to the ghost's last words, "Adieu, Adieu! remember me," is equally indicative. In fact, this interpolation of a silly, inconsequential remark in the midst of the deep horror of Hamlet's new knowledge, seems to prove that Shakespeare intended to portray insanity. In the conversation which follows, is added proof of Hamlet's unstable condition; and Horatio's assertion,

> "These are but wild and whirling words, my lord,"

proves that he was conscious that Hamlet's remarks and actions were not natural.

The text shows that, up to this point, Hamlet had no intention of simulating madness, or of desiring that his companions should preserve secrecy on the night's affair, for he says:—

> "I hold it fit, that we shake hands and part;
> You, as your business and desire shall point you,—
> For every man has business and desire
> Such as it is; — and for my own poor part,
> Look you, I will go pray."

Here is nothing about a secret or a plan; here is no expression of simulated madness. The last words, "Look you, I will go pray," show that Hamlet was recovering from the excited stage of his insanity, and returning to his settled condition of melancholia. It is at this point that Horatio assures Hamlet that his words are "wild and whirling." This assertion is the key note of the play; for, to Hamlet's mind, now calmer and more rational, yet still acutely keen, it presents a new idea, and what appears to him a clever plan; but which is, in fact, a most absurd one, and the one most likely to arouse the king's suspicions. The very absurdity of this plan is a proof of Hamlet's insanity. He sees that Horatio considers him insane; in this he does not agree with his friend, but he determines to carry out the idea, thinking thus to placate the king's suspicions. Then follow the new injunctions to secrecy and the expressed determination to "put an antick disposition on." The complication of character which arises is worthy of Shakespeare's genius and is a bold stroke which few but he would originate. An insane man simulating insanity! It is a master subject.

Let us notice one more point in this first act, which teems with indications of Hamlet's insanity. Hamlet says,

> "The time is out of joint; — O cursed spite,
> That ever I was born to set it right!"

These words are signficant inasmuch as they express Hamlet's opinion that he has a mission imposed upon him. His thought embraces not only the special revenge to which he is pledged, but the idea that he is born to improve the times. This idea is in keeping with his broad mind, which, stimulated by his insanity, sees, in his own private revenge, an example and regeneration for others.

Hamlet's madness is of that kind which burns quietly and almost unseen, until it is fanned up by some exciting cause; then it blazes forth fiercely. This form of insanity is well known to experts, and if Shakespeare did not intend to portray such a case, then his genius builded better than he knew.

We have already spoken of the exciting cause in the ghost's appearance, and have seen what an effect it had upon Hamlet. This episode is the strongest proof of Hamlet's insanity because it happened before his determination to feign madness. The other episodes, though less convincing because happening after his expressed plan, still furnish much weight of evidence. The second outburst of madness occurs when Hamlet is denied access to Ophelia. This denial is the exciting cause. Mark how strongly Ophelia describes its effects: —

> "Lord Hamlet — with his doublet all unbrac'd,
> No hat upon his head, his stockings foul'd,
> Ungarter'd and down-gyved to his ankle,
> Pale as his shirt, his knees knocking each other,
> And with a look so piteous in purport,
> As if he had been loosed out of hell, ——"

Can this be considered the description of a sane man? Would Hamlet, who was nothing if not a gentleman, so demean himself, even to carry out his plan, as to appear before Ophelia in the condition she describes? To me, this episode presents the strongest of the play's many strong proofs of Hamlet's madness.

The next *outburst*, although there are many other points indicative in a minor way of insanity, occurs during Hamlet's interview, in the lobby, with Ophelia. The exciting cause of Hamlet's exacerbation of madness lies in the fact that Ophelia is a woman,

and therefore, to his mind, like his mother. Mark how mildly he begins and how violently he ends, a true indication of emotional insanity.

Notice, in the play scene, the insane impatience of Hamlet.

> "Begin, murderer; leave thy damnable faces and begin:
> Come: — The croaking raven doth bellow for revenge."

Notice how the climax of excitement overcomes Hamlet, when the player reaches the point of pouring the poison into the sleeping king's ear. It is at this very point that Hamlet, if his plan for unmasking his uncle is to be effective, should remain quiet; but his excitement is so great that he is carried away, and in his usual outburst cannot wait for the players, but hurls the forthcoming plot in the king's face. Is this the action of a sane man feigning insanity, or of an emotionally insane man carried away by an exacerbation of madness?

In the conversation which follows the king's exit, Hamlet is alone with his trusted friend Horatio, and has no cause for feigning; but here again, as in the ghost episode, he breaks into a rhapsodical vein which, by its very opposition to the current of thought, proves an unstable intellect. Again, in his interview with his mother, excited by the thought that the king is behind the arras, he plunges his sword wildly through the hangings with the inconsequential words,

> "How now! a rat? Dead, for a ducat! Dead!"

Once more, in the grave scene, Hamlet, although he wishes to keep himself concealed, becomes overmastered by his affliction. Forgotten are all his scathing denunciations of the "fair Ophelia"; he remembers only that he loved her, and, excited by his emotions and the example of Laertes, he throws prudence to the winds and gives voice to his "wild and whirling words." The queen's speech in this scene expresses fully the peculiar form of Hamlet's insanity, a form which does not vary throughout the play.

> "This is mere madness:
> And thus awhile the fit will work on him;
> Anon, as patient as the female dove,
> When that her golden couplets are disclosed,
> His silence will sit drooping."

Hamlet in his excitement has forgotten (what he certainly could not forget if he were sane), that Polonius is dead by his hand; for he says to Laertes,

> "Here you, sir,
> What is the reason that you use me thus?"

Afterwards, when calmer, he remembers that Laertes's father is dead, but does not attach to himself any blame for it. If he did, he would scarcely set himself (unless conscious in his own mind that his madness would excuse his act — which excuse he does actually make), to court Laertes's favors. Hamlet says: —

> "But I am very sorry, good Horatio
> That to Laertes I forgot myself,
> For by the image of my cause I see
> The portraiture of his. I'll court his favors;
> But sure the bravery of his grief did put me
> Into a towering passion."

There are many points in the play which lend color to the belief that Hamlet was, at times, aware of his insanity, even though, at other times, he did simulate it. The speech just quoted would seem to indicate this self-knowledge, as would also the lines in the closing soliloquy of Act II.

> * * * "the devil hath power
> To assume a pleasing shape; yea, and perhaps
> Out of my *weakness* and my *melancholy*,
> As he is very potent with such spirits,
> Abuses me to damn me."

It is peculiar that of all the characters of the play, the only one who asserts that Hamlet is not mad is the very one Hamlet is trying to deceive. The king refuses to see in Hamlet either real or feigned insanity. This seems to be a significant fact and one characteristic of the methods of Shakespeare, who "by indirections finds directions out."

Upon this common ground, that Hamlet is actually insane, but nevertheless tries to simulate insanity, we can all meet to give to the great master, whose genius shines ever brighter, added praise, by attributing to him the working out of so magnificent and intricate a theme.

A FEW WORDS MORE ABOUT HISTORY.

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THOSE who listened to Professor Levermore's paper and the discussion following it, in the high school section at the last meeting of the Massachusetts Teachers' Association, must have become convinced, if they were not previously so, that in the treatment of history our educational institutions are sadly out of joint. The reason is not far to seek. It is to be found in the lack of any generally recognized and, presumably, sound purpose in using history as an educational factor. It was easy to see that the unsatisfactory results that Professor Levermore obtained from his examinations were chiefly due to the fact that an examiner, holding certain opinions as to the object of history study, had set examinations for pupils whose teachers had held entirely different views, perhaps none at all, or who had felt compelled to forego their opinions on account of the necessity of cramming for college examinations.

Right here, it may be added, we find an explanation not only of the confusion detailed by Professor Levermore, but of the meagre results obtained in other branches of study. It is in the lack of specific aims.

By this I do not mean that general aim in all educational efforts, namely, the awakening of the intellectual faculties and the development of mental power; but the particular part in this general aim which each study is especially adapted to fulfil. The general aim in education calls for a many-sided training, and no one study or class of studies meets or can be made to meet the whole requirement. Each has as its chief aim some special function, as in a line of battle each brigade has its particular position and does not try to stretch itself out along the entire line.

The importance of clearly distinguishing the special aims of different classes of studies cannot be too strongly emphasized; for the distinction carries with it corresponding differences of method. I hope, however, that I shall not be understood as holding that the benefits to be derived from the different branches of study are separated by hard and fast lines. On the contrary, all studies, in the training they impart, more or less overlap one another. I merely

claim that in each study there is some predominating purpose or aim, and that other benefits are incidental. It may be added also, that the chief aim in any study may change with different stages of advancement. For example, the object of geometry in a high school is very different from its object in a technical school, and in a grammar school it would be different still. In this paper the discussion for the most part deals with high school studies.

Some of these studies have for their chief aim to store the mind with useful information or knowledge, as elementary arithmetic or general geography; some to cultivate intelligent observation, or rather the ability to compare, generalize, and classify, as botany; some to discipline the reasoning faculties, as geometry; some to train in manual dexterity, as drawing and tool-work; some to stimulate moral sentiments and cultivate æsthetic tastes, as literature and designing; and some (assisted by all), to cultivate correct and facile habits in the use of language. Now, as I have already said, these different aims call for different methods, and where the general aim is the same in two or more studies, the method must be determined by subordinate aims and considerations. To pursue the subject matter of a study does not of itself satisfy the aim of the study. To satisfy that is wholly a question of method.

But without dwelling further upon this point, let us return to our discussion of history in the light of the above analysis.

History belongs in the class of studies first mentioned, namely, those that aim to store the mind with useful information. Undoubtedly a live teacher makes it the instrument of a deal of good training by arousing discussion and stimulating thought. But still the fact will be generally admitted that history has its place in high schools and the grades below, because it is believed to contain information desirable for every one to possess. It is thus classified with elementary arithmetic.

We study arithmetic to acquire a knowledge of certain processes that meet us daily. We are not satisfied to know how to reason out the multiplication table; we want it at our tongue's end so that we won't have to stop to reason. The same is in the main true of geography. There are many ways in which our knowledge of geography is kept from being forgotten. In the first place, it is demanded in the study of other subjects, as for example, history; then by the newspapers and magazines with their reports and correspondence from all corners of the world; again, by prospectuses for

industrial projects, a canal here and a railroad there, and all sorts of schemes everywhere; and lastly, by the deluge of railroad and steamboat maps, perhaps the most influential of all, even though they are considerably doctored; all such things, stirring the interest of everybody who lives where life has any current, make it certain that the general facts of geography once learned will be in a degree retained. With history it is not so. The student feels no necessity for continuing its perusal after his school course is ended. The chances are that, following an inclination for the new and the sensational, he will confine his reading mainly to the newspaper and the novel, and he is the more likely to do this, in that, with the present tendency in the study of English literature, he will probably carry away with him from school more pleasant remembrances of the novel than of history.

The question now arises: should these considerations have any influence on the methods of teaching these subjects, and if so, what?

To answer this question understandingly, it must first be observed that in the class of studies under consideration the faculty mainly relied on is memory, and the method must perforce be largely volitional memorizing. To be sure, a variety of devices may be introduced to assist the memory both in getting and in holding, but the case is not materially affected thereby. It is manifestly impracticable to have classes travel to study the geography of foreign lands, and the facts of history cannot be unraveled experimentally like those of chemistry. They must be acquired, if at all, from books or lectures.

Another point to be observed is that volitional memory has its limits, and that information thus acquired is exceedingly evanescent. It is like an artificial pond that must have an inflow to make good the loss by evaporation, or its waters soon disappear. In the case of arithmetic and geography, it has been pointed out that circumstances supply such an inflow, but not in the case of history. Six months after a class taught by the usual method, has ended its course in history, it is doubtful if the pupils retain, of all they have learned at the cost of so much time and labor, enough to enable them to speak intelligently about any of it: at the end of the year it is certain they could not do so.

Furthermore, if the inflow is too great, the pond overflows and nothing is gained. So in memorizing, after a certain limit is

reached it seems as if the learning of new facts crowds out others already learned. A singer once told me that he could remember about twenty songs, and when he learned a new one he forgot an old one. I think every teacher of history will bear testimony to the fact that after studying for a certain time, the amount of historical information that his pupils hold on to, does not materially increase. Like the root of the Solomon's seal, as it grows at one end it dies at the other. To relieve the strain on the memory, some recommend an almost entire omission of dates. But history without dates is like faith without works. Would it not, therefore, be as well to omit the volitional memorizing of the facts also?

What then is to be the substitute? In my opinion, it is to pursue the study of history by a broad and systematic course of reading. To do this would require a complete change in the use now generally made of the recitation period, and an entire abandonment of set examinations, though not necessarily of written papers on important events. The immediate aim should be to cultivate in pupils the habit of reading history, by developing a taste for it. We too often overlook the fact that not only can a habit of reading be cultivated, but a habit of reading a particular kind of literature. This reflection gives increased emphasis to the importance of early reading. It is one of the circumstances of my youth for which I am profoundly grateful that I had no access to the stuff called juvenile literature. I firmly believe that the time now given to history in our schools could be so utilized that a majority of pupils would carry away with them a wholesome habit of reading history and biography; but the study must not be marred by the unpleasant experiences of cramming set tasks.

The limits of this paper will not permit a complete statement of all the details of the method. It will be sufficient to say that the recitation periods should be occupied in reading, in discussing questions that may arise, and in brief addresses by the teacher, designed to direct attention and excite a spirit of inquiry. Much depends on the teacher. For class-room reading there should be a brief but well written history which should be kept out of the hands of the pupils, except for this one use. This will make it a fresh exposition of the events under consideration, and its brevity will enable the class to cover a suitable amount of ground at each meeting, besides leaving time for the incidentals mentioned above. This, however, would be only a small part of the actual reading of

the pupils. Under the direction of the teacher, they should read, *pari passu* with the topics covered in the class-room, from more expanded histories, not one, or two, but as many as possible, presenting the story from different points of view, or at any rate, expressing it differently. Orations, poems, essays, and historical monographs bearing on the period should be copiously used.

Suppose, for example, in reading in this way the history of California, there could be put before the pupil such articles as appeared in the Century Magazine during 1891, or Sherman's experience as set forth in the first volume of his memoirs, would they not vivify the epoch to his imagination beyond anything accomplished by the prevailing method? I claim, too, that the memory, through the interest aroused, would absorb more facts and hold them more tenaciously than it now does by the distasteful memoriter process. The pupils could thus read five histories where they are now going through one.

This, too, is the true historical method, if the practice of historians and professors of history is any guide. If you doubt it, ask them.

I am aware that there is another phase of the study of history, namely, the philosophy of history; but when it should be attempted is in my mind an unsettled question. I am sure it is not in the grammar school, or in the lower classes of the high. At the meeting referred to, one speaker said it was not practicable in the high school at all. Of this I am not sure, but if anything can be done at it, I believe that the foundation laid by the method I have described, is the best preparation for it. In either event, Professor Levermore must cease to expect a very copious supply of philosophy from the mouths or pens of infants.

THE HOLIDAY CONFERENCE OF 1891.

THE Holiday Conference of the Associated Academic Principals of New York which was held at Syracuse, December 29 and 30, 1891, was quite different in tone and spirit from the meeting of last year. The special characteristic of these conferences has been the absence of prepared papers and the free, friendly, and informal air of the

discussions. The subjects considered are talked over with something of the varying emphasis, earnestness, and humor of conversation, and therefore a verbatim report of such a meeting conveys only an inadequate idea of its actual interest. Last year the feeling aroused by the proposed changes in the Regents' examinations affected the whole tone of the meeting, making it acrimonious and unpleasant. The principals doubtless felt that some of these changes would work injury to their schools, but it was not conducive to a good meeting to let this thought so dominate them that they could talk of little else. This year the old tone of geniality and good humor came back, with, perhaps, an added touch of friendliness by way of reaction. If the meeting was not brilliant, it was pleasant and profitable; and the policy of making it an interchange of opinion rather than an exhibition of intellectual ability seems likely to be continued. There are plenty of gatherings where formal papers and more carefully prepared discussions can be heard; but the peculiar spirit of the New York principals' conference cannot readily be matched elsewhere. The stenographic report of the proceedings which will be published from the Regents' office and sent to those specially interested makes it unnecessary for THE ACADEMY to give an account of the meeting in detail.

The discussion of Tuesday morning was largely upon the subject of University Extension, and if any person present had doubts as to its desirability or its success, he succeeded in keeping them to himself; the advocates of the movement had the floor. Secretary Dewey was full of enthusiasm on the subject, and no one ventured a word to offset his ardor. Extension courses were reported as established in several cities and as about to be established in a number more. If enthusiasm and a liberal use of printer's ink will make the movement a success in the State of New York, it seems in a fair way to succeed. We seriously question, however, whether the same enthusiasm, printer's ink, and money could not be better applied, provided genuine educational results are the only thing sought for. A course of University Extension lectures, with the accompanying syllabus and hour of class instruction, will cost a local centre at least three hundred dollars, if we are rightly informed. It is not easy to see how very many such classes can be organized in any one place, or how in most of the smaller towns and villages the money for even a single course is to be obtained. Moreover, the

good that is to come from the little work done is likely to be more than offset by the conceit and false ideals that necessarily follow pretentious work. University Extension is a sounding title, and a taking one as well, and doubtless the thing it stands for will have its run; but we doubt if it ever seriously touches the intellectual life of the country. Its advocates claim that it is to be a revolutionizing educational force. It is well advertised to say the least, and creates much talk, but attracting the attention of the public and rousing its curiosity is by no means the same thing as stimulating it to more earnest mental effort or raising it to a higher intellectual level. Despite the triumphs of modern advertising we still believe that most of the best work is done unheralded and without notoriety.

We are sorry none of the New York principals ventured to set forth publicly in the conference the opinions which many of them have freely expressed in private. There is a witchery about Secretary Dewey's eloquence and a magnetism in his presence which silence the ready speech of those who differ from him, and which allow him to receive a false impression. This seems to us unfortunate. We have recently heard things said by New York men about University Extension, and other matters, entirely unlike anything indicated at the conference, or at other meetings, where such things might rightly be discussed. To criticise the secretary a hundred miles away is a very different thing from freeing one's mind when his eye is upon one and his lips are ready to answer. In the former case we learn that the pass-cards are not promptly forthcoming from the Regents' office, but that constant and bewildering changes are; that the work of University Extension goes merrily on, but that the annual report for year before last sadly lags; that the secretary is more anxious about the punctuation of a report than about its prompt appearance; in the latter case we learn, — well, we learn many things, but among them all is very little trace of what we knew before, namely, that the principals wish the secretary did fewer things and did them more promptly, and followed the course he lays down a little longer before starting off in some new direction.

The discussion upon the question as to whether school courses could be shortened took a wide range and covered pretty nearly the whole field of education. As one speaker put it, the opinion of each class of educators seemed to be that the work of the other classes might be shortened, but that they themselves had all that

they could do in the time allowed. It was generally felt that a careful simplification of the Regents' examinations would lessen the period of a child's life spent in the grammar school and academy, because it is now necessary for him to learn not only the subjects studied but also the different ways in which these subjects might be looked at by an examiner. In considering the question of shortening and enriching our school programmes, the time lost in getting pupils ready to meet examinations set by outside parties has been too often left out of the count. The child specially lacks flexibility of mind; and even when he has gone carefully over a subject, he is by no means ready to answer a set of questions upon it from a point of view which has not been suggested to him. Superintendents who have not carefully studied children and who do not know how the child mind acts upon a given subject, often do children great injustice in examinations which have for their main object a testing of the work of the teachers, rather than a sympathetic effort to find out from the child's point of view what the child really knows. The injurious effect upon secondary education of the varying requirements and standards for admission to college was, of course, brought out and emphasized. A few years ago the colleges were crying out against the secondary schools on account of the poor work which they did, but at present it seems to be the secondary schools who are finding the most fault with the colleges. The question of coördination does not seem as yet to be approaching a settlement; but it is a good sign that it cannot be let alone in any considerable discussion of educational problems.

Tuesday evening was wasted in discussing the report of the committee on Regents' examinations. It was practically adopted in the end, and there was nothing gained in the discussion, — no idea of any account having been advanced by any speaker, and no recommendation having been given that embodied the matured convictions of the conference. Regents' examinations seem to act like a red flag on New York principals, and they cannot be restrained from rushing madly upon the subject whenever it is presented. It seemed almost ludicrous to devote so much time to electing a new committee, when it did not result in a choice that represented the interests which the conference had voted it was desirable to have represented. A little more frankness in this election would, in the end, have better served all concerned.

The discussion upon methods of teaching English literature and of stimulating the reading habit was the most interesting of the conference. Dr. Little, of Northwestern University, made an address that was eloquent, stimulating, and practical. His wise and thoughtful words raised the whole tone of the conference. The key note of the discussion was the necessity of making literature interesting. It was recognized that if pupils do not carry out of school a real love for what is good in literature, it will be very difficult for them ever to acquire such a love afterwards. It is important that they should begin with works in which they feel, or can be made to feel, an interest, and that the grade of the works read or studied should be raised as the pupils grow able to appreciate and enjoy them. It is important that the pupil should gain in school a genuine love of literature, as this, more than any other one influence, will make all his other work productive in the future. The study of the history of literature, or the biography of literary men, should have a very subordinate place in the scheme of school work. The unanimity of opinion upon this subject seems to indicate that the schools of the state will become real sources of influence in raising the standard of literary culture in the next generation.

The inductive method of teaching Latin and Greek did not call out a very vigorous discussion. Perhaps the fear that it might seem to be a kind of advertisement of Professor Harper's book had some effect upon its advocates. Those who used the method were, as would be natural, strong in its praise. But the majority of the principals apparently did not use it and appeared a little indifferent to it. Dr. Milne, of Oneonta, made the only vigorous speech upon the subject; in which he said that the best method is that which is most natural to the teacher's tone of mind. He can make a success of the method in which he thoroughly believes. It is well to take hints from the various methods that may be presented, but the good teacher will cast everything into the mould of his own mind, and his method will be the outcome of his own personality. It is only second class teachers who follow other people's methods.

Professor Burr, of Cornell University, and Dr. Little spoke upon the inductive method of teaching history, illustrated in part by the Sheldon-Barnes plan of teaching United States history. They put

emphasis upon the value of a study of the sources rather than of a compiled narrative of our history. No opportunity was given for a discussion of this subject on the part of the conference, or some of the principals would have spoken upon the other side with great readiness. No one doubts the value of the study of sources, of an acquaintance with the methods as well as the results of historical study. But a great majority of the schools represented in the conference are in the habit of making United States history a study pursued very early in the course. Their theory is that every American boy should know something of the history of his country, of its growth, and of the influences that have shaped it. The subject, no doubt, could be more thoroughly pursued in the latter part of the course, but in that case the greater number of the pupils would not meet it. The history is taken up in the form of narrative because it can thus be made more attractive to the immature minds who study it. The practical aim is a preparation for citizenship and not a knowledge of the ways to deal with historical material.

The registered list of attendance is as follows: —

A. W. Abrams, Liberty,
John G. Allen, Rochester,
A. C. Anderson, Forestville,
S. Dwight Arms, Deposit,
T. H. Armstrong, Andover,
A. G. Benedict, Clinton,
N. S. Benham, Niagara Falls,
D. A. Blakeslee, Tonawanda,
Donaldson Bodine, Gouverneur,
Chas. T. Brace, Le Roy,
George P. Bristol, Cornell University,
S. Reed Brown, St. Johnsville,
Herbert Brownell, Whitesboro',
W. E. Bunten, Rondout,
Robert D. Bussey, Jr., Angola,
Frank S. Capen, New Paltz,
W. G. Carmer, Dolgeville,
Mary E. Catton, Perry,
John W. Chandler, Jordan,
Francis J. Cheney, Cortland,
B. G. Clapp, Fulton,
H. L. Clark, Shortsville,
J. Scott Clark, Syracuse University,
N. T. Clark, Canandaigua,
I. N. Clements, Cazenovia,
C. N. Cobb, Oneonta,
E. J. Colcord, Franklin,
D. H. Cook, Pompey,
Jay Crissey, Belmont,
E. M. Crocker, Victor,
F. W. Crumb, Bainbridge,
Elisha Curtiss, Sodus,
Chas. O. Dewey, Binghampton.
H. P. Emerson, Buffalo,
Geo. W. Fairgrieve, Coxackie,
D. C. Farr, Glens Falls,
R. M. Fitch, Brockton,
Fred. C. Foster, Canton,
Elmer G. Frail, Marion,
Chas. J. Galpin, Belleville,
A. J. Glennie, Bolivar,
Charles Goldsmith, East Aurora,
Frank W. Goreth, Sidney.
W. D. Graves, Delhi,
Freeman A. Green, Albion,
Geo. S. Hanley, Ellington,
W. L. Harris, Port Byron,
Harriet J. Hasbrouck, Canandaigua,

Welland Hendrick, Cortland,
A. C. Hill, Havana,
L. W. Hoffman, Brookfield,
Fox Holden, Plattsburgh,
Frank J. House, West Winfield,
L. R. Hunt, Troy,
S. S. Johnson, Watkins,
Roland S. Keyser, Middleburgh,
S. C. Kimm, Antwerp,
N. G. Kingsley, Palatine Bridge,
W. H. Kinney, Lyons,
Thos. R. Kneil, Saratoga Springs,
D. C. Lehman, Fultonville,
Albert Leonard, Dunkirk,
F. V. Lester, Westport,
John S. Lincoln, Addison,
Lincoln R. Long, Hancock,
Thos. B. Lovell, Attica,
Edward Maguire, Rushford,
J. E. Massee, New York,
J. M. McKee, Silver Creek,
E. F. McKinley, Candor,
A. D. McMurray, Walworth,
A. J. Merrell, Middlebury,
James M. Milne, Oneonta,
A. C. Mitchell, Mount Morris,
J. H. Murray, Smithville,
W. S. Murray, Liverpool,
J. C. Norris, Canandaigua,
A. W. Norton, Oswego,
Marcellus Oakey, Little Falls,
G. H. Ottaway, Canastota,
E. A. Parks, Clarence,
George H. Quay, Bath-on-Hudson,
O. B. Rhodes, Adams,
C. W. Richards, Oswego,
James G. Riggs, Watertown,
W. H. Ryan, Cobleskill,
Geo. C. Sawyer, Utica,
E. E. Scribner, Trumansburg,
Solomon Sias, Schoharie,
Arthur C. Simmons, Middleport,
Irving B. Smith, Warsaw,
S. McK. Smith, Canajoharie,
H. H. Snell, Salamanca,
Andrew Spencer, Hamburg.
M. L. Spooner, Keuka,
H. E. Stevens, Corfu,
T. B. Stowell, Potsdam,
A. N. Taylor, Westfield,
H. L. Taylor, Canadaigua,
W. C. Tifft, Sandy Creek,
L. H. Tuthill, Homer,
D. D. Warne, Fairfield,
Albert B. Watkins, Albany,
S. A. Watson, Rome,
H. E. Webster, Union College,
Chas. F. Wheelock, Albany,
Aaron White, Cazenovia,
T. C. Wilber, Waterloo,
S. G. Williams, Cornell University,
E. A. Winchell, De Ruyter,
James Winne, Poughkeepsie,
Judson I. Wood, Ilion,
A. M. Wright, Waterville.

The election of officers for the coming year resulted in the choice of Principal Lovell of Attica for President and Principal Keyser of Middleburgh for Secretary. The Executive Committee are: — Principals Allen, Rochester; Arms, Deposit; Hunt, Troy, with the President and Secretary *ex officio*.

COMMUNICATIONS.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY:—

The paper of Mr. Grandgent on *The Teaching of French and German in Our Public High Schools* should not discourage teachers from doing their best in the practice of conversation in the foreign language. His computation of the time that can be allotted to the individual pupil in this department, conclusive as it seemed as applied in this particular instance, was really an argument that would equally prove absurd most other things attempted in gregarious education. The disproportion between the magnitude and number of the subjects we teach, on the one hand, and the time that any single pupil can get, on the other, is very great, and could easily be so presented as to prove to an unthinking public the utter futility of most school activity.

Mathematically demonstrable though it be that it is impossible to teach large classes to speak French, the thing is visibly done. An ounce of fact is worth a pound of demonstration, and a great many pounds of ridicule. Twice in my experience as a high school teacher I have been associated with teachers of French whose classes spoke French. I mean this without qualification. I do not remember that it was the practice of either of these teachers to isolate the individual pupil for his duly computed *quantulum* of time and to let the rest remain inert while each was getting his few seconds of individual instruction.

The first requisite in training to spontaneous utterance is the habituation of the ear to the foreign sounds. This part of the work is easily achieved by dealing with the class *en masse*, provided the teacher has the gift of making himself well listened to, and provided also he has a neat articulation and understands the practical pedagogy of phonetics. Forty can listen as well as one. But it will usually be of small avail to listen to American French or to French spoken by any one who has not a mobile mouth or who is impatient of infinite repetition.

The ear once habituated to the sounds, the tongue soon ventures the feat of reproducing them. Here everything depends on alert-

ness, animation, and the absence of formality. If forty pupils are all eager to reply and ready to give their answer in French, it matters but little that only one can be heard at a time. Eager readiness to speak, followed by the test that each gets in hearing the utterance of the one who is called upon, is almost as good as speech itself. But the turn comes round to the individual with considerable frequency provided the exercise goes on with vigor.

I have seen classes in their third year who followed with perfect comprehension the casual talk of French visitors with each other, and who were ready, when called upon individually, to speak in French before the visitors without any signs of silly consciousness. This was, of course, very successful teaching. But one could see, on looking into the class any day, that unusual work was going on. Neither time nor attention was wasted. Not a day passed but each pupil had his little chance to speak and his large chance to hear.

But the French teacher's chief hold on success in teaching conversation is in arousing enthusiasm for out-of-school practice. Home lessons are a device surely not unknown to Boston youth. Nor is French speech a rare commodity in the Boston market. We suffer ourselves to think of the public school opportunity to speak French as a particularly precious thing, whose duplicate cannot easily be procured. But the fact is, that in all our larger towns conversation with natives of many nationalities is eminently procurable. It is as easy to enter into relations of speech with French people as it is to take music lessons, to go a botanizing or geologizing, or even to go a shopping. French, German, and Italian are spoken all about us by thousands of people. French and German talk is as cheap as talk of any kind. Moreover, the foreign people are deliciously polite, and appreciate the desire of ingenuous young Americans to learn their tongues. One may buy all sorts of commodities through the medium of French, German, or Italian. Your neighbor in the street-car is almost as likely to be a foreigner as an American. One may order his lunch in almost any language.

If the teacher has the gift of rousing enthusiasm for practice in speaking in the foreign language, surely the opportunity for such practice is not far to seek. Of course we shall hear about the inelegant or ungrammatical French to be picked up *in the street*. This is a silly bugbear. The danger of a little grammatical contamination is a poor excuse to urge for the ridiculous outcome of inability to speak in a language that one confesses to having studied laboriously during several years.

To be a good critic of the teaching of a foreign language, it is by no means necessary to be a foreigner, to the manner born. But to be a good teacher of the foreign language, one must be a native, or else possess peculiar lingual gifts, which must have enjoyed exceptional opportunities of culture. One of the best teachers of French I ever knew was an American gentleman who had resided a long time at Paris in the capacity of interpreter to our legation, having, of course, thoroughly accomplished himself in French speech before he got his appointment. He was a genuine bilinguist. Moreover, he was a born teacher, with a natural gift of enthusiasm and self-sacrifice. He burnt himself out with zeal in his work, and died prematurely. But it is not essential that the teacher of French be bilingual. He may possess, in absolute mastery, only one language, provided this is the one he undertakes to teach. The public school pupils are entitled to hear the foreign sounds directly from native lips. Reflected sounds, echoes of sounds, we should have to put up with, if foreign people were unwilling to come to our shores, or were reluctant to come into our schools for a stipend, bringing with them pedagogic training and adequate executive force.

At a time when educators are becoming more keenly alive to the necessity of making instruction individual, and are studying the methods of achieving this object in various branches, it is a pity that a willingness should be expressed in a high and influential quarter to surrender one part of the field of operations as untenable. Much more would it be to the credit of the teachers of modern languages if they would also join the forward movement, recognizing that they too have a problem to solve. For it will not do to rest in the labor-sparing theory that out of language-teaching one element can be dropped without prejudice to the rest. In language-teaching there are *vier Elemente, innig gesellt:* the learner must be taught to hear, to speak, to read, to write. Fundamental to all linguistic teaching is the *sound*, the utterance. This the learner first hears, and soon tries to give back. Ear and tongue are the organs always to be cultivated. The eye and the hand are of secondary importance. That teaching is lame which discredits utterance as the complement of audition. This is not the day, in pedagogic development, for putting the phonetic side of modern language teaching under a cloud.

S. Thurber.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY: —

Dear Sir: I notice in the December ACADEMY a note from Mr. B. S. Hurlbut, Instructor in English at Harvard College, in regard to a printer's error which made him say "*to clearly and easily express*" instead of "to express . . . clearly and easily" or "clearly and easily to express." "The mistake seems a small one," Mr. Hurlbut goes on to say, "but as the fault is one to the correction of which we give such constant effort, I wish you would correct it in the next number of THE ACADEMY. At the same time I wish you would give a little lecture to teachers on this very point, and thus help us out here at Cambridge, — give us less red ink work."

This point of view seems to me unscientific and unscholarly. It may be that when Professor Hill first published his "Rhetoric" the principle of "good use" — to use the conventional phraseology — stamped as a solecism the use of the adverb in such a position. But that after all has not much to do with the matter. The real question is what is "good use" now, and, as to that, careful observation will show that "this solecism, so common in the newspaper of the day," is not only common in the newspaper but not unknown in the works of almost every reputable writer of our time. Just what the condition of the question is now, Professor Earle states in his "English Prose" (New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1891, p. 182).

The question, it seems to me, is simply one of fact: "good use" no longer absolutely in all cases prohibits the idiom in question. Why then should we not tell boys or young men what the fact is? Why waste time much needed elsewhere in trying to convince them that "to directly serve" is an atrocious barbarism, used only by slipshod and illiterate writers, when they have only to open Matthew Arnold's lecture on "Literature and Science" to find him using it deliberately. It will always, I suppose, be a part of our duty as teachers of Rhetoric to reiterate "thou shalt not do so-and-so," but I fear we are frequently in danger of so puzzling a boy with unreasonable prohibitions that he has neither time nor interest left for learning what it is the business of Rhetoric to help him learn — how to express clearly and adequately what he has in mind.

Faithfully yours,

G. R. CARPENTER.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology,
January 10, 1892.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY: —

Dear Sir: Professor Carpenter certainly is justified in maintaining that many reputable authors insert an adverb between the verb and the sign of the infinitive mood. In selecting examples of this solecism — it is not "an atrocious barbarism" — for his "Rhetoric," Professor Hill has chosen from the works of distinguished writers. That these authors have used this solecism is no reason why we should allow students to do it. Our object at the university is to teach not what is passable but what is best.

In discussing "this most astonishing change," "this innovation," which he by no means sanctions, Professor Earle, selecting largely from newspaper leaders, has given six examples of the use, in every one of which the expression of the thought would have been quite as clear and far more elegant had the writer stuck to the correct form. That Matthew Arnold has employed this solecism a dozen times does not counterbalance the hundred times he has followed the idiom of the language. On rare occasions, of course, the use may give some slight gain in clearness of expression; but I have yet to find a case where the proper form cannot be easily understood. Matthew Arnold and Professor Carpenter to the contrary notwithstanding, I cannot but feel that we are justified in bidding our pupils let all adverbs with the infinitive follow the analogy of *not*.

A study of the history and development of the language will prove that my position is not unscientific; that it is unscholarly and not in accord with the best principles of literary art the last line of Professor Carpenter's letter certainly disproves.

Sincerely yours,

BYRON SATTERLEE HURLBUT.

Cambridge, Jan. 28, 1892.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Wells of English. By Isaac Bassett Choate. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1892.

Mr. Choate's plan is very simple. He has selected forty minor English writers, beginning with Thomas of Erceldoune, 1240–1298, and ending with John Evelyn, 1620–1706, and has treated them in as many chapters, covering in all 290 small pages. Each author has his own chapter: there is no pretence of grouping according to periods or according to any sort of affinity. Thus the book is as far as possible from being a history of any portion of English Literature. It is a collection of forty short essays on English writers who lived before 1700, so chosen as to omit all the greater names.

Of course, a good many forties could have been chosen from this long range of time that should all equally have avoided the most famous names. Mr. Choate is entitled to his forty, and as it will be interesting to see what names he considers sufficiently obscure for his purposes, we give them here: — Thomas of Erceldoune, John Barbour, William Langland, John Ball, Henry Bradshaw, John Skelton, William Dunbar, Robert Henryson, Sir Thomas More, Sir Thomas Elyot, Sir Thomas Wyatt, Thomas Tusser, Henry Howard, George Puttenham, Sir Walter Raleigh, George Chapman, Robert Greene, Samuel Daniel, Joshua Sylvester, Michael Drayton, Cyril Tourneur, Christopher Marlowe, Thomas Middleton, John Marston, Thomas Heywood, John Taylor, Philip Massinger, Robert Herrick, Izaak Walton, James Shirley, Thomas Browne, Thomas Randolph, Thomas Fuller, William Cartwright, Richard Crashaw, Sir Roger L' Estrange, Richard Lovelace, William Chamberlayne, Andrew Marvell, John Evelyn.

It is not necessary to suppose that the author regards all these names as equally famous, or equally lacking fame. It is of no use to be surprised at any omissions or inclusions. The list makes no pretense of being the second, or the third, or any other, forty. All we can say is that here are forty English writers briefly considered. If we want to read such essays as these on these particular writers, this is our book.

We do not incline to yield assent to Mr. Choate's doctrine of the superior value to us of the inferior writers. He says in his Introduction: "It is to be said, by way of recommending to study authors of less reputation, that these deal more commonly with affairs of everyday life right about them They see things at a closer view than do those who are favored with diviner vision. Their lives and their fortunes are likely to coincide more nearly with the life the masses lead. Their work throbs with purely human pulses. They give a clear estimate of the worth of life to them, and that is about its worth to the toiling masses whom they represent. Through them we gain a touch with humanity across the ages as close and warm and true as the hand clasp of a friend."

This is certainly very kind to the neglected men, but is it quite true? Does not Mr. Choate ascribe to the forgotten worthies precisely the qualities which they do not possess, — the qualities by virtue of which the eminent men continue eminent in spite of the lapse of time? The notion that a writer is nearer to us because he is not elevated on a pedestal of fame is a juvenile conceit. Chaucer is chiefly great because he moves familiarly among the men of his century, observes them with kindly humor, and sets them forth in most exquisite poetry. Langland is less readable than Chaucer, because he lacks Chaucer's humor and literary skill, and because he had had smaller opportunity of seeing men of all sorts. Yet Langland, and Wyckliffe, and Gower are all necessary to the student of the fourteenth century.

While, however, we cannot agree that general neglect confers a special title to notice, we grant that it is well for students of literature to give due heed to the names of little note. Mr. Choate's book will have its function. His forty chapters are all very brief, but they are pleasing and profitable introductions to further research in the writers he treats. To some extent he indulges in quotation. The book can hardly be called readable as a whole. It is a kind of cross between a mere work of reference containing just forty articles, and a book proper intended to develop an idea or a philosophy.

The Wordsworth Dictionary of Persons and Places, etc., by J. R. Tutin. 1891. Hull, England.

The significance of a poet's work may be judged by the quality and the number of those who have contributed to the interpretation of his poems. Trying Wordsworth by this test we find that Shake-

speare alone of English poets excels him in the quantity and wealth of literary criticism which he has evoked.

When we think of Coleridge, Lamb, Southey, De Quincy, Wilson, and Hazlitt among the earlier, and Arnold, Shairp, Ruskin, De Vere, and Sir Henry Taylor among the later teachers of the art of literature, we see how fortunate Wordsworth has been in the quality of mind and heart he has interested in his work. All lovers of Wordsworth have felt the need of a complete concordance of his works — such as we have of Shakespeare, Milton, and Tennyson — and will therefore welcome the present volume compiled by one who has excellent opportunities in many ways to prepare himself for the work. While this claims to be only an apology for a concordance, yet it is a step toward one and a step in the right direction.

It contains a dictionary of persons — Historical, Mythical, and Biblical — alluded to in the poems, together with the title of the poem in which the name occurs. This in itself might seem trivial, and yet how often we would like to trace in different poets allusions to a certain name and are unable because there is no such collection as this. The special feature of the work is the remarkably careful and complete list of places alluded to in Wordsworth's poetry. Beginning with the Lake District the list includes other parts of England, Wales, Isle of Man, Scotland, Ireland, the Continent, Asia, Africa, and America.

The localities in Wordsworthshire are of special interest, as Wordsworth was so intimately associated with its every aspect of hill and vale, of lake and beck, of sunshine and storm, which renders this section of England "Nature's own University in an era of great cities." One cannot be said to have felt the charm of Wordsworth who has not communed with him in the sacred associations of the Lake-Land.

One might wish that this list had been given with more of detail so that all that would be necessary to identify the places would be a volume of the poems and this dictionary. Such a guide would be the boon of the tourist, and to the general reader would serve to illustrate the realism of the poet in regard to nature.

> "True bard, because true man, his brow he wreathed
> With wild flowers only, singing nature's praise;
> But nature turned and crowned him with her bays,
> And said 'Be thou *my* Laureate.'"

The list of familiar quotations is more extended than any hitherto published and illustrates to what an extent Wordsworth has enriched our thought and language. The list of the best poems will be of use principally as a test to which the reader may bring his own list. It differs in some respects from any selection made by others, while in the main it agrees with Mr. Matthew Arnold's and those made by the Wordsworth Society.

In the appendix is to be found a cancelled version of the Ode to Duty, discovered by Mr. Tutin in 1890. While in most respects the authorized version is the stronger there are many lines in this — perhaps the first draft — which are extremely significant.

The dictionary of birds, plants, trees, flowers, etc., is of interest to those who find in them an illustration of the poet's love for "all things out of doors."

The book will be of great value both to the student and general reader of the great poet. As only a limited number of copies have been issued, we confidently expect such a demand for the work as will render a second edition necessary.

A. J. George.

The Study of English Literature. A plea for its recognition and organization at the universities. By John Churton Collins. Macmillan & Co. London and New York, 1891.

It is possible that some of our readers may already have made the acquaintance of Mr. Collins through his Illustrations of Tennyson, a book which, if we mistake not, will have proved disappointing to all but a very small class of advanced students of comparative literature. Multitudes of readers aspire to understand our great writers, and are willing to buy books that promise to elucidate the more recondite works and passages. Few, however, care greatly to trace the genesis of thought and phrase, and to have pointed out to them the possible remote source of this or that happy turn. Mr. Collins's studies run eminently in this direction.

His study of English Literature is a plea to the governing bodies of the English universities to turn the study of literature into his own favorite channel. His book is distinctly a *Streitschrift*, a polemic, directed against the tendencies now uppermost at Oxford. Mr. Collins laments that philology dominates the study of letters. He would not oust philology from the program, but would make it distinctly ancillary to literature. He deems that at present it is phil-

ological science that is in the lead, and that this is a perversion of the ideal order, which would study literature directly for its form and content, and would use philology only so far as this could be made subservient to its own purposes.

In the course of his argument Mr. Collins says a great many things in the most pointed and felicitous manner, and throws not a little light upon existing English conditions, often even illuminating the general field of the pedagogy of literature in a manner pleasing and instructive to readers not especially concerned with his immediate issue. Yet we think his book too much of a plea for a particular cause to be an expression of a sound philosophy.

First, he misconceives philology, as so many unthinking persons have always been wont to do, not knowing what the philologists of the last century have aimed at and achieved. He applies to the term philology its narrowest definition, thinking of it evidently as denoting merely the study of languages. In its broader meaning, philology includes whatever is expressed in the languages, that is, the various literatures. One man may begin with the forms of language and thence ascend to the study of literary works, while another may begin with the literature and descend to the phenomena of the language in which the literature is expressed. Either procedure is good philology. We object decidedly to Mr. Collins's sharp demarcation between literature and philology, and to his effort to give his favorite side of the subject a primacy over the other. He seems to put forward the name *science* as an especially opprobrious word, and affixes it to philology as denoting something different from literature. This one fact, it seems to us, throws him out of the discussion of the question of methods in the teaching of English. Literature is of course included within the mass of phenomena of which science is to take cognizance. Scientific methods are to be applied to it, as they are to everything else knowable.

Secondly, Mr. Collins seems to us greatly to overrate the value of his idea of tracing resemblances and parallelisms in writers. This is an employment of the vaguest sort, without limit or issue. A discursive poem, like the *De Rerum Natura*, must inevitably have touches of kinship with any other discursive poem, like the Excursion. To collect and record masses of such coincidences is a legitimate function preliminary to scientific comparison and generalization. That it is a sort of fruition and consummation of literary study, and opposed to science, seems to us a most untenable assumption.

The student of language has a clear conception of his aim, and knows when he makes a discovery; but what is to be the outcome of literary research? At present we can only say that literary study implies the reading and the comparison of many books. The *words* of the Excursion are traceable to sundry sources in earlier tongues: are the thoughts in any analogous manner also traceable? Can we follow them back, getting glimpses of them cropping out above the surface here and there; and can we finally fix them as products of some one writer or one era? Can we also pursue the development of modern poetic metaphor, and find who first uttered this or that figure of speech? Would this be philology or literature? Many an English word is a crystallized metaphor. In this state it indubitably belongs to philology as conceived by Mr. Collins. It would really be much better, we must think, not to divide the field. The term philology is a good one for the solid and indivisible human interest which we include under the names, language and literature.

Writers and Readers. By George Birkbeck Hill. New York, 1892.

This is a reprint of six lectures by Mr. Hill, — four on Revolutions in Literary Taste, and two on the Study of Literature as a Part of Education. The latter subject will make the book seem to promise something for teachers of English. Such should be warned that Mr. Hill here serves up a syllabub, good enough fare for the teachers summering at Oxford to whom the lectures were addressed, but light and unsubstantial nourishment for the season of work. The volume is as dainty in paper and binding as it is meagre in content. Its high price, moreover, confirms the impression created by its matter and its exterior, that it is not intended as a working book for teachers of English.

In about 180 pages of print there are, according to the index, some 300 references to half as many different authors. As reading-matter for an idle hour or two the book will do very well, and is certainly not lacking in mild interest. The first four lectures give striking illustrations of the vicissitudes of literary reputation. Only a laborious reader, like Mr. Hill, could have collated these instances. It is pleasant to read of the high repute with their contemporaries enjoyed by William Taylor, Elkanah Settle, and John Pomfret; and the reason why this reading is pleasant is that it gives us occasion to be thankful that so many writers are irrecoverably lost in oblivion. The salvage from the wreck of time is too abundant.

The duty of the world to its writers is like that acknowledged by good men with regard to inflicted wrongs, — to forgive and forget. We remember too many writers for our comfort. Whatever any writer has ever added to the stock of ideas has got into the general circulation and was long ago assimilated. It is now the part of wisdom to cultivate this faith, and to be willing, and more than willing, to let names and works pass from our ken. We cannot carry the accumulating lumber.

The last two of Mr. Hill's lectures are a plea for more culture of the imagination in the teaching of youth. This is a well-worn theme, and Mr. Hill makes no new contribution to it, either in substance or in illustration. Yet his pages are eminently readable. It is a book for the last languid hour before going to bed, — as good as a game of checkers or backgammon, but not exacting in its demand for attention, like chess or whist.

Principes et Exercices de Composition Francaise, adaptés à l'enseignement primaire supérieure. Par M. Rauber. Paris, 1891.

Text-books to aid in the teaching of the mother-tongue are coming to be as numerous as text-books of Latin and Greek. The recent pedagogic literature of France and Germany is full of them. To a limited extent the teacher of English may profitably look into some of these foreign books for suggestions of method. The French and the Germans do these things more systematically than we do, having more definitely settled conditions to work in and clearer conceptions of the objects to work for.

M. Rauber's book is excessively divided and subdivided, with infinite short paragraphs duly numbered for class-room use. It requires patience to examine it and to determine its value to the general student. Yet the book has rewarded our turning of its leaves. As an English teacher we are always lying in wait for topics of compositions; and some of this small game we have here bagged. We are pleased, moreover, with the author's very simple exposition of his *Notions usuelles de logique, de rhétorique, et de litérature.* In high school teaching, rhetoric is not more important than logic, and only the most rudimentary notions of either have any proper place there whatever. Really good *elementary* logic, rhetoric and literature are rare in this country. Too much is usually undertaken. Perhaps the most pedantic feature of our high school

work is the attempt to teach rhetoric with all its wonderful nomenclature. A good lesson in simplifying can be extracted from M. Rauber's little work.

Dante dichiarato ai giovani da Angelo de Gubernatis. Firenze; Il Paradiso, 1888; Il Purgatorio, 1889; L' Inferno, 1891.

Though Italian is taught in but very few American secondary schools, and Dante, consequently, is but little read by young persons in this country, it is inconceivable that there is not a certain number of *teachers* among us who busy themselves with Italian literature in the original, and who are learning the immense importance to modern culture of an acquaintance with the Divine Comedy. One of the main justifications of the laborious study of Latin is that such study opens the way to the easy acquisition of the modern romance languages. To be familiar with the ancient literature of Italy, and yet to remain indifferent and incurious about the far richer and more stimulating modern literature of this most interesting country, is an anomaly in the intellectual ambition of the pedagogic body. Let us steal some hours from that devotion to pure and applied pedagogics which is consuming us with its remorseless flame, and learn by actual knowledge into what lovely forms the ancient speech of Italy has succeeded, with the lapse of time, in degenerating.

In three exquisite little volumes Signor de Gubernatis gives us the Divine Comedy, accompanied with a running comment, not in the usual shape of notes, but in continuous and readable narrative. It is this elucidatory matter from his own pen that makes up by far the greater part of the bulk of the volumes. Each canto is introduced with a general exposition of its content; then are given a few tercets of the poem, which are immediately followed by a full setting forth of their meaning as understood by the editor. The explanations are copious, clear and interesting.

Not only is the book intended as an elucidation of Dante to youth in general; it is addressed to a particular boy, the son of the author. Each volume has a dedication to *mio caro Sandro.* These parental words are full of most touching interest, of the kind inspired by the book edited by De Amicis for his son, under the title *Cuore.* It is not the Saxon way to be so domestic, so pathetically affectionate, in books intended for the eye of the public. So far, however, are we from feeling any repugnance to this revelation of parental tenderness, that we confess to a profound relish for it as it appears in its

Pitt Press Series. Milton's *Ode on the Morning of Christ's Nativity, L'Allegro, Il Penseroso* and *Lycidas*. With introduction, notes, and indexes by A. Wilson Verity, M. A., sometime scholar of Trinity College. Edited for the Syndics of the University Press. Cambridge: at the University Press 1891.

Thucydides. Book II. Edited by E. C. Marchant, M. A., Assistant Master in St. Paul's School. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. 1891.

A Short Historical Grammar of the German Language. Translated and adapted from Professor Behaghel's 'Deutsche Sprache,' by Emil Trechmann, M. A., (Oxon.) Ph.D., University of Sidney. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. 1891.

Longmans' *School Geography for North America*. By George G. Chisholm, M. A., B. Sc., Fellow of the Royal Geographical and Statistical Societies, and C. H. Leete, A. M., Ph.D., Fellow of the American Geographical Society. Second Edition. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 15 East 16th street. 1891.

Elementary Science Lessons. Being a systematic course of practical object lessons illustrated by simple experiments. By W. Hewitt, B. Sc., Science Demonstrator for the Liverpool School Board. Standard I. London: Longmans, Green & Co., and New York.

We are in receipt of a letter from Mr. Frank E. Plummer, President of the Secondary Department of the National Educational Association, addressed to the teachers and principals of secondary instruction in America, soliciting their help in making up the program for the July meeting. He wants suggestions as to the most fruitful subjects for presentation, and nominations of prominent educators whom it is desired to have appear on the program. He wishes all to feel free to offer these suggestions, for he then will be enabled to present a program of subjects and speakers selected by teachers themselves.

It is desired to have the Saratoga meeting of this department (July 12th to 15th, inclusive) surpass in interest and helpfulness any other similar occasion. Special care will be given to arranging time for free and full general discussions, and the social feature of the occasion will not be neglected.

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VOL. VII MARCH 1892 NO. 2

HOW TO CHOOSE BOOKS BOTH FOR INTEREST AND FOR PROFIT.

Advice to Young Readers by a High School Teacher of English.

We all agree as to what we mean by the word *interesting*. Those things, — books, events, actions, — interest us which engage our attention without exacting effort on our part; which come to meet us, not half way, but the whole way; which bring their own stimulus with them, and leave to us the luxury of being drawn on by a force outside ourselves which wards off languor and keeps our faculties on the alert. The interesting object has its credentials, its passport into the territory of our minds, always ready to show on demand. In whatever shape this certificate of interest be drawn up, it always amounts to a claim and proof of kindred with some part of our nature. An invitation that appeals to us on the ground of kinship cannot be resisted. Things we have been meditating, things we have been longing for, things we have been admiring, things we have been hating as well as things we have been loving, things we have been fearing as well as things we have been hoping, — all these have become domesticated in our mental habits, where, like the innumerable root-filaments of a tree, they perpetually grope for nutriment through the soil of our lives. It is not in our power to say that such influences as our nature destines for us and brings to the avenues of our minds we shall not absorb. That which is ours, sooner or later we get: that which is not ours we cannot take.

But you all feel at once that this is fatalism, and that while, as a piece of moralizing, it has its truth, it has not all truth, and must be completed by further moralizing. There is no one maxim of life that expresses the whole philosophy of life. An absolute and sufficient key to all the intricacies of human nature is not thinkable. It takes infinite fractional statements to set forth the wisest thinker's conclusions. Moreover, the maxims of the philosopher usually seem to conflict with each other: one inculcates prudence, another self-sacrifice; one caution, another swift decision; one non-resistance, another sturdy self-defence; one skepticism, another faith. A truth has its counter-truth, as each homœopathic medicine has its antidote. Hence it is that any utterance putting broadly and forcibly the truth there is in fatalism must be met at once by another utterance putting just as strongly the truth there is in free will and choice. Man is more than an animal having many tentacles all feeling for food in the sea of his surroundings. Man not only knows, but knows how little he knows; and is pushed by an unceasing inner impulse to know more. Moreover, he grades his gains of knowledge, and esteems his acquisitions differently, according as they relate themselves to the higher or to the lower parts of his nature, — to his hopes and beliefs and aspirations, or to his comfort, his fame, his standing in society.

We know indeed what is interesting, but even that which is most interesting is often least satisfying. In our heart of hearts we ask to be more than interested: we also want to be profited. We know when we are profited. We know when intellect, heart, conscience are touched, and when they are left unmoved. There is no difficulty in deciding this point. Every one recognizes the feeling of enlarged insight, of deepened conviction, of satisfied craving for beauty and sublimity, that goes with interested enjoyment of things that are great and good. We are always aware when we have given our time and our attention to worthless things.

The conceptions, then, of the interesting and the profitable are unlike, yet, unlike as they are, they are far from excluding each other. Not only is there no incompatibility between them: much rather have they most intimate relationship and inner congruence with each other. You may observe, to use the language of Addison's allegory, that notwithstanding the weight of Profitableness is much heavier than that of Interest, it weighs an hundred times heavier than it did before, when you put Interest in the same scale with it. We can

separate the two only in thought. A book that is profitable, if you see that it is so, becomes to some extent interesting by that very fact. A book can hardly be conceived as being in any sense interesting except by virtue of some good it does you: at least, if it has held your attention a while, it has kept your mind off from care and worry, and that is surely something.

There can be no profitable reading that is not interested reading: that is, to leave on the mind any impression of good, reading must be carried on with the willing coöperation of all the faculties. The mind can receive only when it is in a glad, receptive mood. Both body and mind are capable of doing task-work; but there is no good reading which is task-work. The reading that pupils do in school in the shape of assigned lessons is usually a violence to nature, and would remain barren of fruit, did not teachers laboriously enforce themselves to add to it some stimulus and piquancy; and even then it remains a wholly different genus of reading from that to which the same pupils resort for refreshment and recreation, perhaps in precisely the same authors. The great problem of practical education is how to make the learner learn with all his faculties; with heart and soul, as well as with intellect; with his emotional nature coöperating, instead of lying inert or resisting. The speech on this subject which Shakespeare puts into the mouth of Tranio in the Taming of the Shrew, much as it has been quoted, will do to quote again: —

> Let 's be no stoics nor no stocks, I pray;
> Music and poesy use to quicken you;
> The mathematics and the metaphysics,
> Fall to them as you find your stomach serves you;
> No profit grows where is no pleasure ta'en:
> In brief, sir, study what you most affect.

Harriet Martineau, in her autobiography, tells us that when she was a child of seven years, she was one Sunday afternoon prevented by illness from attending church with the rest of the family. "When the house-door closed behind the chapel-goers," she continues, "I looked at the books on the table. The ugliest-looking of them was turned down open; and my turning it up was one of the leading incidents of my life. That plain, clumsy, calf-bound volume was Paradise Lost, and the common bluish paper, with its old-fashioned type, became as a scroll out of heaven to me. The first thing I saw was 'Argument,' which I took to mean a dispute,

and supposed to be stupid enough; but there was something about Satan cleaving Chaos, which made me turn to the poetry; and my mental destiny was fixed for the next seven years. That volume was henceforth never to be found but by asking me for it, till a young acquaintance made me a present of a little Milton of my own. In a few months, I believe there was hardly a line in Paradise Lost that I could not have instantly turned to. I sent myself to sleep by repeating it; and when my curtains were drawn back in the morning, descriptions of heavenly light rushed into my memory."

Thus did a little girl of seven come under the spell of the gravest and loftiest of religious poets. Let us see a man of fifty deporting himself like a little girl at the bidding of a story-telling bard whose verses had come to him across an interval of centuries. In his journal of Aug. 16, 1851, Macaulay writes, — and this is only one of several similar anecdotes that one may find in his biography, — "I walked far into Herefordshire, and read, while walking, the last five books of the Iliad, with deep interest and many tears. I was afraid to be seen crying by the parties of walkers that met me as I came back: crying for Achilles cutting off his hair; crying for Priam rolling on the ground in the courtyard of his house; mere imaginary beings, creatures of an old ballad-maker who died near three thousand years ago."

You will not be so simple as to infer from these anecdotes that I am going to recommend you to carry a Milton or a Homer into your rooms or on your walks and affect to weep over them as you read. It is not for us to be Martineaus or Macaulays. But, just think, how much we should enjoy our reading if we were, in this respect, more like these famous persons! Wherein do we differ from them? Evidently in this, — that they were far more sensitive than we to literary excellence, — that they felt more keenly than we do the great qualities of the great writers, had souls more delicately attuned to such music, and found, more than we do, a real, overmastering charm to their own minds in what had for generations charmed the elect of the race. People differ in mental gifts, and we concede the right of divers talents to their divers enjoyments when we repeat the proverb that it takes all sorts of people to make a world. I knew a young man who was so much a scholar as to be the valedictorian of his class in college, and who announced that he had read Paradise Lost and had seen nothing particularly fine in it. The young man's mind was dull just where Miss Martineau's mind

was especially acute. Doubtless he had his compensations. There may, of course, be compensations even for defects so grave as inability to appreciate Paradise Lost, or, I may go so far as to say, even for inability to enjoy any poetry whatever. If people would be honest with themselves and each other, they would doubtless often confess that they do not like the great poets, and read them, when they do read them, from a sense of duty, or in acknowledgement of an external obligation. George the Third was a great king, and could afford to speak disrespectfully even of Shakespeare. He confessed he found Shakespeare "sad stuff." But George the Third was a mortal of very limited intelligence, of particularly narrow prejudices, and of obtuse perceptions. He might set the fashion in some petty matters for the snobs of his day, but he could not turn aside the homage which the English race were paying, and have ever continued to pay, to their greatest writer. We feel instantly that there is no consolation for us in the stupidity of the monarch: it was the gifted child and the much read, great-hearted man that were the more natural and the more human, the more worthy of our emulation. The supremacy of the great poets is a blessing, our devotion to them is a kind of religion, and disloyalty to their authority is a kind of heresy.

In its original, primitive signification, the word *idiot* means a peculiar person, a human being that does not possess the common birth-right of his race, but has special and private ways of viewing the world and interpreting its meaning. As the infant developes its senses and its mental faculties, the anxious parents watch for the usual, well understood demonstrations of intelligence. Does the baby act like other children and show himself endowed with the powers of mind and body which the common sense of mankind observes to be essential for human companionship and for competition in the struggles of life? These are the first and all-important questions. No one ever thinks of looking or hoping for a new faculty. That the child shall posses *the* faculties is the parental prayer. The great defects, that determine idiocy, are happily extremely rare. But oddity in all its phases and degrees is common enough; and as the infant becomes a youth and an adolescent, the parents continue to be concerned lest queerness develop itself in the tastes and aptitudes. We all desire that our children shall play with the other children naturally and eagerly and become popular among their mates. We desire that they shall read the same books that the

others read, and enter into the usual work of school with hearty zeal. The things that boys and girls have been studying for untold generations we all acknowledge to be the things that our particular boys and girls to-day ought to study. We lament that son or daughter develops no taste for mathematics or Latin, for literature or science; that he assumes to say he never can learn to spell; that he hates declamation or will not learn to dance. The momentum of the race is too vast a force for any individual to think of resisting. Great geniuses are simply more docile and tractable minds. They open themselves more trustingly and unquestioningly to what the experience of the race has to offer. The genius is merely less suspicious than the ordinary, average person. He opens his mouth and shuts his eyes in all innocence and confiding simplicity to mother Nature's invitation, and he always gets his mouthful of good.

As it is the great object of education to bring the human soul into close relation with the achievement and experience of the race, so is this also the object of all reading that is done for profit; and the profit of reading consists precisely in this, that it gives us intellectual enrichment and emotional enjoyment without requiring us to abandon our work and our firesides and to carry letters of introduction to the men and women in other lands who have messages to speak to our ear. Reading, to him who knows how to read, is an Aladdin's lamp and a Fortunatus' purse. Reading levels all ranks, and takes us each evening into society better than that which plumes itself on being exclusive. Everybody reads. Books, like other wares, solicit every member of the great public to admire and buy. The daintiest aristocrat, if he makes a book, becomes a petitioner to you and me to show him some attention. Two cents a day will usually pay for his attendance at your convenience, and in favored Massachusetts he will wait on you for nothing for a fortnight. He tells you his best thoughts: he has none better for his drawing-room receptions. In all eagerness he has noted down for his book his finest ideas and his happiest turns of phrase. No elegant company can be conceived, for which our writer who belongs to the social *élite* would reserve a *bon mot*, if this reservation involved keeping his lucky word from the public at large. There is no longer any esoteric, any reserved, or occult knowledge. Everything is spread out before the world, and the public is invited to help itself. In reporters for newspapers and in authors straining for subjects for

books there is a certain ferocity of enterprise that leaves no hope that anything under the heavens will escape their search. We who have disengaged evenings and holidays have the finest entertainers begging for the privilege of glorifying for us every moment of leisure. I notice that the girls on their way to their work beguile the long and dreary sitting in the street-car by reading books. What else than books would do the business? The monotony of the ever-recurring ride through the same streets is, by the book, made to yield to endless variety of scene. Day by day the story goes on, the plot develops and thickens, the dénouement arrives at last, and we begin another book and sit down to a wholly new panorama.

> "O! turn thy rudder hitherward awhile:
> Here may thy storm-bett vessell safely ryde:
> This is the port of rest from troublous toyle,
> The worlde's sweet In from paine and wearisome turmoyle."

Everybody reads. Doubtless the commonest motive of readers in seeking books and spending time on them is that to which I have just referred, to banish care and tedium, to keep the mind away from the greater and the lesser anxieties of life, to find secret sympathy and encouragement in communion with an ideal world. That which Wordsworth says of Song, in the famous ode in which he glorifies the Power of Sound, is equally true of the song of the poets and the prose epics of the novelists:

> "For the tired slave, Song lifts the languid oar,
> And bids it aptly fall, with chime
> That beautifies the fairest shore,
> And mitigates the harshest clime."

Now this is a most worthy and an altogether commendable motive for reading. I most heartily believe in fiction, — in stories, romances, fairy tales. Better read the most improbable and sensational story that has some degree of sustained interest and consecutiveness, than mull long evenings, and, still worse, long Sundays, over the characterless medley of unrelated bits that make up a modern newspaper. I know of no law or maxim of culture elastic enough to be made to approve the mental habit engendered by reading the multitudinous scraps of all sorts, — forced wit, low humor, information useless or useful, personalities, politics, and the rest, — which the press gives us every day in such astonishing quantity and at such astonishingly low prices. Even if absolutely all the separate bits

and morsels that fill the newspaper columns were good and wholesome in themselves, yet their lack of unity would utterly condemn them as reading-matter. Rapidly passing from item to item, constantly focussing the inner eye to new distances, abandoning one impression before it is fairly made and trying to take another of an altogether different kind, the mind is dulled and calloused, and comes to lose its divine faculty of admiration and wonder. Do not dawdle long over the papers. Not till you are very old may you adopt the senile habit of dozing over heterogeneous paragraphs of reading-matter.

Yes, stories are good reading, provided they are good stories. The very oldest of profane books, the Homeric poems, are stories; and these oldest of all stories are still the best stories. We saw Macaulay weeping over the Iliad. The race has always had story-tellers to listen to, and has listened to them with boundless delight. Even Paradise Lost, grave, majestic, sublime as it is, is a story. In recent times the writing of fiction has wonderfully increased, and now the world is deluged with stories, so that it is now necessary to select with care, or we may waste our precious time on trash. Publication is easily effected, and the reading public is so enormous that a market is afforded for almost anything that contains a grain of any kind of stimulating quality. Benjamin Franklin, you remember, searched in vain in the city of Boston for books to satisfy his youthful literary curiosity. To-day the momentous question for the young man is how to avoid books, rather than how to procure them. We must devise and formulate some wholesale principle of exclusion, or we shall be at the mercy of the loudest-voiced hawkers in the trains or of the most flaunting advertisers in the papers. If we have no guiding principle of our own in selecting books, we shall hear only of the newest ones, which, having their way to make in the world, thrust themselves most persistently upon our attention; and to read only the newest books is almost the same thing as reading only the poorest ones; for the new books, — all except a very few, — are fated soon to sink out of sight and hearing; and if we read only the new books of one year, we shall the next year find our recollections to be of books that are already no books at all, having evaporated, faded, vanished from human ken, without leaving a visible trace behind. What a blessed dispensation of Providence it is that the world is able to forget books! Think of the fearful accumulation of lumber that the studious world would have to store away

and keep account of if it could not consign to the limbo of oblivion its superfluous books. John Milton, two hundred and fifty years ago, could indeed hope that, "by labor and intent study," he "might perhaps leave something so written to after times, as they should not willingly let it die." But only a Milton, and that in an age of comparatively few books, could venture, without rashness, to express such a hope. In the next century William Taylor, John Pomfret, and Elkanah Settle were great names, apparently destined to be long remembered: and who of us to-day knows these names, even as names? We have no means of telling what writers of this generation will be read in the middle of the twentieth century. That we and a great many more like a writer very much to-day is no guarantee that he will not utterly have dropped from notice fifty years from now.

There is such a great difference between a book that has its reputation securely made and a book just thrown upon the market, that we almost need different words for them. Were the dividing line between them more distinct, our language would soon grow the required words. But the difference is real, and very great; and it is highly important that we should appreciate it, for it is on this appreciation that the art of making reading profitable depends.

A new book by a new writer brings no claim to our attention unless it treats a subject on which we happen to be inquisitive. The new book explains nothing, accounts for nothing. The old book, the classic, comes loaded with associations. The old book our fathers and mothers, and their fathers and mothers, read. The old book, even at our first reading of it, is a familiar friend, because it helped make the thought we think, and even helped shape the language we speak. Our older books, our English Bible, our Shakespeare, Bacon, Milton, Addison, Pope, Johnson, Cowper, Wordsworth, were a factor of supreme importance among the influences that have made us what we to-day, intellectually and morally, are. Before we read these writers we have gained a perfect preparation for understanding them from the very fact of our birth in the race to which they belong. As we live in political institutions which the Anglo-Saxon race has evolved through more than a thousand years of struggle, so we live in a republic of thought and feeling, of faith and aspiration, which the Anglo-Saxon race has founded: for when we say that our literature is the work of the individual men, Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, and the rest, we mean, of

course, that this literature is the expression which the race has given, by the mouth of its most gifted prophets, to its own spiritual nature. The new book may contain much personal whim and conceit. The old book cannot be private and peculiar and wanton: the books of its day which were so, duly went out of existence, and trouble us no more: only by antiquarian excavation can we dig them up if we wish to satisfy ourselves why they died while the classics lived. If we can imagine a person as coming to adult years without ever having read the English Bible, and then beginning its perusal as a new experience, we see at once that such a person would find himself, in some degree, at home in the Scriptures, because the teaching of the Scriptures has inevitably already reached him through other avenues, over which he had no control. Every soul living in Christendom gathers more or less Christian doctrine: he assimilates it from his very contact with civil and social institutions. Even the phrase of the Bible our imagined reader would find not wholly a surprise: for our language is largely Scriptural, and our common, every-day speech tells of a Bible-reading ancestry. What I have supposed as an extreme case, with regard to the reading of the Bible, is a frequent experience with readers of Shakespeare and Milton. When you first take a play of Shakespeare in hand, you soon begin to have the feeling that you have read this before, though you know you have not. The fact is, the race is indoctrinated in Shakespeare. Shakespeare has expressed the general mind in phrases so pregnant with meaning, so full of insight, so happy in metaphor, that the race has had to adopt them as its own and add them to its stock of possible means of expression. Religious people, unless they are careful students, hardly know what ones of their religious conceptions they owe to the Bible and what ones to Milton and other writers. In short, our ways of thinking and speaking are largely determined for us by those who expressed in speech the thoughts of our ancestors.

Thus I have tried to show you the immense superiority to us of the old book over the new one. The old book explains to us the origin of countless allusions in all later books. How could we possibly journey through the world of books, did we not know Hamlet and Falstaff, Portia and Desdemona, Ariel and Puck, Satan and Beelzebub, Sir Roger de Coverley, Lemuel Gulliver, Rasselas, Dr. Primrose, — but there is no end to the people we must know in order to read English, and whom we can come to know only by

reading. An acquaintance with old books is fundamental to all intelligent, and hence to all profitable, reading. You cannot get along in writers like Macaulay and Lowell, whose pages are perfectly spotted with allusions, unless you have read preceding writers.

Perhaps you remember Emerson's three rules for choosing books: "1. Never read any book that is not a year old; 2. Never read any but famed books; 3. Never read any but what you like." These are golden rules. Let us consider them a moment.

If you wait till the brand-new book is a year old, you will usually observe a very interesting thing to happen: the book will, in nearly every case, have ceased to be spoken of, you will have forgotten to look it up, and your precious time will be saved. This one excellent rule will bring to the anxious reader most delightful relief. A year is a great plenty of time to wait; for books crowd each other with dreadful pressure. A generation or two ago a book was still fresh after the lapse of a year: now a book generally goes down in a year and ceases to vex. A book that in its probationary year does not vanish from sight *may* be worth your attention: there would perhaps be a satisfaction in the mere examination of the reasons why a book enjoyed so exceptional a fate as to survive a year.

Why you should read only famed books I have already tried to show you. The most excellent *people* are usually obscure: but excellent books never are. Fame, in a book, *is* excellence. You naturally want to read, not ephemeral books, or the books of petty coteries, but the books of your race, the books that have a past, and are destined to have a future. As a boy I saw on my father's shelves Dryden, Pope, Addison, Johnson, Boswell, Thomson, Cowper. Is it for me to displace the eighteenth century from the tender associations and the affections of my youth? I find the world agrees with my inherited predilection for the eighteenth century, and still keeps on republishing and newly annotating those writers. Whatever the Victorian era achieves, it gives us no substitutes for the earlier periods. It will not do to tell me that those old writers wrote for their contemporaries, and that we also have writers who write for us, whom therefore we ought exclusively to read. This is an imitative age. To us it seems morbidly self-conscious and anxious about its literary reputation. Look over the titles and tables of contents of a few new books taken by chance, and you will be surprised to see how many writers to-day devote themselves to criticism and exposi-

tion of the older writers. We are under great temptation to read modern books about old books, and to let such second-hand acquaintance serve us in lieu of familiarity with the old books themselves; or we attend lectures about standard authors whom we have never read, — a most enfeebling self-indulgence, characteristic of a lazy, superficial age, —

> "An age that lectures, not creates,
> Plastering our swallow-nests on the awful Past,
> And twittering round the work of larger men
> As we had builded what we but deface."

The only proper business of a literary lecture to beginners is to spur them on to read the older, the basic, the classic, literature in our language. Books that simply criticize and expound and imitate the productions of more original, creative periods are not the reading for us. For the best reading we must go back to those creative periods themselves, and there come into contact with the works which our age finds so much satisfaction in explaining and exploring.

Emerson's third rule is perhaps the most vital of all, — "never read any books but what you like." In all I have said about reading, you perceive I have had in mind only those books which constitute literature proper, — what used to be called *belles lettres*, after the analogy of the *beaux arts*, the fine, or beautiful arts. The word *book* here again has too great an extension. There is a multitude of books useful to various people for various purposes: on occasion your interest centres on a cook-book, a manual of etiquette, or a railroad-guide. But you understand me, of course, to mean only books of imagination, or books that address themselves to our moral and religious nature. Under these broad rubrics comes all poetry, from Spencer to Tennyson; all fiction, from Sir Thomas Malory to George Eliot; all moral essay-writing, from Bacon to Emerson; all biography, from Walton's Lives to Carlyle's Burns and Sterling, Cromwell and Frederick. A book that, from its title, appeared technical or professional, may, by some peculiar quality of humor, or simplicity, or moral earnestness, have taken hold of general readers, and become part and parcel of literature. Such a book is, for example, Walton's complete Angler, which belongs to literature by virtue of what it is over and above a treatise on fishing. Such is White's Selborne, a book of natural history, but, like the modern books of Thoreau and John Burroughs, so pervaded with

human interest and so leavened with spiritual insight, that it is saved from the oblivion which is sure to overtake very soon every book that is merely technical. Ascham's School-master, a book over three hundred years old, treating education, driest of themes, is still a part of English literature, and by no means merely an obsolete book on a special art. Ruskin's Modern Painters, and indeed, all of Ruskin's books, appeal to the same readers as does Wordsworth's poetry, and for the same reason. Books that possess this celestial vigor stand apart from books that merely increase or record knowledge, and if they have eminent grace of style, and please by their clearness and frankness, they enter into our hearts and become our friends, and glorify and enrich our lives.

These are the books which, if we read them with interest, we shall surely read with profit. But how shall we begin this reading; and on what principles shall we go on choosing, book after book, to satisfy the unstilled craving of our minds for intellectual and moral stimulus? One who has wasted precious opportunities may utter his warning to those who are younger and still have many opportunities left. Do not read too much on other people's advice. The role of adviser, of lecturer, is easy. There is a delicious charm in bowing away an audience that has given decorous attention, and which neither expects nor desires to ask troublesome questions. Good methods of teaching are coming to discard the lecture and to adopt the seminary. In the seminary teachers and learners work together with mutual help and stimulation. In selecting books each reader has his own bent to consider, his own curiosity to gratify. It is really a very foolish procedure for an adult person who has read one good book to ask another person what to read next. For every piece of reading suggests inquiry, and every book is explained by other books: the chain of mutual elucidation and suggestion runs on endlessly. You may know, in fact, whether you have read well by this sign, — that good reading starts you on lines of research and prompts further reading.

Once your mind is possessed by a desire to explore some particular subject, all reading on that subject becomes interesting and profitable. And I will venture to give you an illustration; not urging it as advice, but simply submitting it as a good specimen of reading in English poetry, a subject that has the very highest claims on our attention. I will select as a starting-point, as a nucleus or centre of interest, a poet who stands historically on the confines of the eigh-

teenth and nineteenth centuries, and in whom is represented the transition from the era of Pope and his followers to the era of Tennyson and Longfellow. I choose this poet because he writes a peculiarly simple language, and utters a peculiarly lofty and spiritual thought. I choose him because his influence on this century has been more distinctly marked than that of any other poet, and because great numbers of thoughtful persons are wont to acknowledge that to him they owe a large part of their culture. I choose a poet who died more than forty years ago, at eighty years of age, and is yet in great vogue. I mean, of course, Wordsworth.

Suppose you undertake the study of Wordsworth. Choosing first his shorter and simpler poems, try to catch their spirit, to perceive wherein they are alike, — to what elementary poetical philosophy they give expression. Then make your way to the longer pieces, dwelling on them till you become imbued with their quality and begin to recognize what the Wordsworthian thought essentially is. As Wordsworth entire is rather voluminous and unequal in interest, approach him first in the little volume of selections made by Matthew Arnold. This reading should not be done languidly. If you are reading for profit, choose hours when your vigor is not all exhausted, and put down in your note-book your impressions: that is, insist on formulating in language your results. This will make your grasp of the thought surer, your insight more penetrating. And do not be discouraged because once in a while you hear echoes of learned dissertations on this simple poet. Trust yourself. Trust the poet when he says,

> 'Tis my delight, alone in summer shade,
> To pipe a simple song for thinking hearts.

As you proceed, and come to review your note-book now and then, you find queries jotted down which will require you to call at the library and ask for various books. It will be time enough for you to read some critic's essay on Wordsworth, — Lowell's for example, or John Morley's, or Matthew Arnold's, — when you have become considerably at home in Wordsworth himself. Already it will have occurred to you that this poet had contemporaries and predecessors. You will have seen that he was conscious of reaction against a fashion that he found dominating the poetry of his time. Who were then the writers in possession of the field when Wordsworth was coming to his maturity? Here is a field for inquiry. Wordsworth

helped to set a new fashion: who were the representative poets of the preceding age? In Wordsworth the "return to nature" culminates: what poets served as the earlier harbingers of this return? If there was a return to nature, where had poetry been when it was away from nature? Who were the poets who were not poets of nature; and how came they to be such? Was there an era of nature-poetry before them? In short, through what vicissitudes did English poetry pass in coming from the great Elizabethan blooming-time down to Wordsworth? If your mind is capable of curiosity, you will not rest satisfied till you have answered some of these questions. You will seek out Cowper, and will read him with double inquisitiveness; for you will be eager both to know what his poetry is in itself, and to perceive what relation it has to the age that is passing away, and to the age that is coming on. Gray will have new significance when you contemplate him as a herald of a new era, no less than as a writer of exquisite verse. With your mind full of Wordsworth as a standard, you will be interested to see that Thomson also, who died more than twenty years before Wordsworth was born, was a nature-poet, and distinctly prophesied the coming time. But before you have got so far back as to Thomson, you come to Goldsmith, to Johnson, and then to Pope himself; and here you find yourself in an atmosphere very unlike that which you left when you began your journey with Wordsworth. Now you must orient yourself in the artificial school and see if you can like Pope.

But to give in detail all the ramifications of literary inquiry that force themselves upon our attention when we have once made a good start would be an endless labor. What I desire to impress upon you is that you must not accept courses of reading from any authority whatever. Your reading will be interesting and profitable only so far as it is spontaneous: it must be of your own originating, organic to your own nature. It is all-important that you cultivate self-reliance and learn, with regard to your culture, to take the initiative with confidence. If you take up a book because some reading-circle or a friend commends it, and you then do not find it interesting, drop it. There is no law requiring you to finish a book just because you have begun it. But try to have, when you take a book in hand, a motive of your own that will take you on, as it were, by its momentum. Then you must remember that, stories excepted, books are not intended to be read solid. A Wordsworth, a Longfellow, is an entire library, of a very miscellaneous character. You

go to books for what you want, as you go shopping. As you do not take whole store-fuls of goods, so you need not read all that chances to be between the covers of a book. The principle by which you will pick your way through books and give unity to your reading, is your purpose, your desire, your curiosity, the thing you want to find out. An intelligent curiosity about literature concerns such topics as the comparison of writers and literary periods, the tracing of influences, the study of the growth and the decay of forms, the criticism of contemporary fads by reference to past changes of fashion. Such intelligent curiosity any persevering reader may attain; and when he has attained it, he escapes from the domination of the book he chances to be reading, and uses this and all other books to the end of making himself acquainted with that consummate product of the human mind, — English Literature.

THE NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN THE PRUSSIAN GYMNASIA.

EASTER comes this year April 17. On that day goes into effect in the Prussian gymnasia a new course of study. The event deserves to be noticed in other lands, for Prussian legislation in matters of education is never wanton or capricious, and whatever Prussia does with its schools is sure to be done in obedience to fully matured public sentiment. The year 1892 marks a stadium in German educational development. Five years ago we were translating for readers of the ACADEMY portions of Paulsen's book on the German upper schools and were trying to show by various citations what was the drift of sentiment as to needed reforms among the German people. Now we chronicle a partial fruition of the aspirations of the reformers. Change has come. The government has acted, and the schools must accept the new conditions. For it must be noted that these innovations in the course of the classical schools of Prussia have been resisted by the schools themselves, and have been imposed on them by the popular will as expressed through the legislature.

The classical men have been of late years on the defensive. Undoubtedly they are not inherently lacking in the power to initiate reform: but the fact is that they have almost everywhere, for several years, been employed in guarding their lines against assaults that seemed to them directed against the very citadel of sound education. Some of their positions have at length been carried by the enemy, and a treaty has been signed defining afresh the respective jurisdictions.

We must remember, however, that while, as between classical and modern, there seems to be strife, *education* is never in danger, whichever party temporarily wins. Education would be in danger only if the nation showed itself indifferent to its schools and the doings of their managers. If school-men fought and nobody cared, that would be indeed ominous. To have fewer hours given to certain subjects and more hours to certain others, — to have young men who have never studied Latin matriculated at the universities, — those things are in themselves trifles that should neither elate the one side nor depress the other.

Our readers will perceive from the tables that the aggregate of weekly hours during the nine years of the gymnasial course is diminished by the new plan by twelve. This means that in each week of his course the gymnasial student gets an easement of an hour and a third, on the average. This may be regarded as a concession to the demand for less pressure in the schools. After Easter the Prussian gymnasiast will have a weekly average of twenty-seven and one-third hours of recitation instead of the twenty-eight and two-thirds that he has had hitherto.

As to special studies, it will be seen that the time given to religion and mathematics remains unchanged. Studies that lose are Latin, Greek, French, history, and geography, and natural science. Latin loses very nearly twenty per cent. of its old time, Greek exactly ten per cent. The other losing branches suffer but little. The aggregate of the losses is no less than twenty-five hours. Of these twenty-five hours, twelve, as we have seen, are added to the pupils' time of freedom from school work. The remaining thirteen hours are applied to the benefit, first, of *English*, which is now first introduced into the course with a total of six hours, and, secondly, of German, whose sum of hours is increased by five, from twenty-one to twenty-six. The two hours taken from natural science go to the benefit of physics.

It is not to be supposed for a moment that the reformers will rest content with this partial success. But everybody recognizes the fact that changes in the law will be made but slowly, and that a long breathing-time may now be counted on. Whether, with twenty per cent docked from its Latin, German culture will survive, will be an interesting matter for observation. S. T.

THE new *Lehrplan* for Gymnasien in Prussia, which comes into force next Easter, may be regarded as a compromise between the advocates and opponents of classical teaching. It reduces the hours assigned to instruction in Latin by twenty per cent, while the reduction in Greek amounts to ten per cent only. The difference is due, not to any preference for Greek, but to the belief that a much greater reduction would render the teaching of the Greek language practically ineffective. The voices raised in favor of Greek, instead of Latin, as the basis of school instruction, are few and far between. Latin has been the primary school subject here for a thousand years. It has, at all periods, exercised a powerful influence on German literature, and its disappearance would leave a great gap in the educational system. Just at this moment nothing could take its place in higher education. No subject has been so carefully adapted, by long moulding and remoulding, for the general purpose of mental discipline, and as an introduction to the study of language. The student of modern languages at the University would be helpless without this preliminary training. The establishment of "Latinless" schools, so far, does not contradict this view.

Now, Greek is really an intruder into the school programme. It was indeed taught, but not as a compulsory subject, before the beginning of this century. It was in 1812 that Greek was first made obligatory for students proceeding to the University, and it took its place thenceforward as a necessary part of school instruction.

It is noteworthy that the giants of Greek scholarship grew up under a system of non-compulsion: Heyne, Wolf, Lachmann, Böckh, Bekker, Hermann; and that the great impulse which Greek communicated to German literature under Goethe and Schiller was also earlier in point of time. The objections to the study of Greek from a practical point of view may be thus summed up.

(1) Pupils are detained too long at the Gymnasium. The average age of "Abiturients" is nineteen-and-a-half to twenty. They remain on in order to pass the necessary examination to qualify for the University. Very few of these intend to study classics at the University. It may fairly be said that Greek entails two additional years at school.

(2) Attention is diverted from the subjects which are of practical importance, or health suffers under the effort to carry on all subjects alike.

(3) A preponderant amount of time is necessarily given to the study of dry grammatical details, disgusting to the pupil, and taking away his attention from the study of the literature. Nor is the success such as to justify this expenditure of time and labor. (In fact, complaints are general that the real mastery over grammatical forms, which is attained in Latin teaching, is never attained in Greek. These complaints are likely to be louder under the new Lehrplan.)

Some practical teachers, who wish to retain Greek in schools, have strongly advocated the *inductive* method. This is a variation on the well-known plan by which the translation of a portion of some author is first mastered, and grammatical instruction is given as required. This system was advocated by Herbart, introduced by him in Göttingen, and carried out under Ahrens in Hannover. Geh. Rath. Dr. Lattmann, author of the excellent Latin Grammar, gives an interesting account of Herbart's method, in a pamphlet on this method of teaching, which he strongly advocates. Some countenance is given to it in the new Lehrplan.

Other teachers advocate the free use of "Versionen," *i. e.*, "cribs."

A more thorough-going proposal is to give up the study of the language altogether, and to devote two hours weekly to an organized study of Greek authors in translations (Professor Bahnsch). We may add that in schools the writing of Greek prose and verse is a thing of the past: only very simple exercises survive for grammatical practice.

For the moment, such radical proposals as the last mentioned are out of court. We must wait for the working of the new Lehrplan, and, when the results attained are weighed and estimated, it will be time to take further steps. Meantime these ideas, which outstrip the general current of opinion in influential circles, serve to show the set of the stream.

Now it must be remembered that one and the same authority determines what shall be taught in school and university. If a change in the school plan is determined, it can at once be extended to the University.

In direct connection with the University are schools of three classes: (1) wholly classical — Gymnasien — with Latin and Greek: (2) Real-Gymnasien, with Latin: (3) Oberrealschulen without Latin.

Those who have passed the leaving examination (*Maturitäts Examen*) at Gymnasien are free to study in any of the four faculties at the University: theology, law, medicine, philosophy.

Those who pass from Real-Gymnasien are admitted to study in the philosophical faculty, but are excluded from the faculties of theology, law, and medicine.

By the new regulations, issued in December, 1891, to come into force after Easter, 1892, the leaving certificate from the Oberrealschule admits the holder to study mathematics and natural science at the university. And he is further entitled "to present himself for examination as a candidate for the post of teacher at higher schools." Thus the last classical barrier is completely removed, and entrance to the University is free to all who can show that they have attained a high intellectual standard.

It will have been seen that the conditions of entrance depend on the status of the school from which the student proceeds. Greek and Latin are absolutely exacted from the pupil of the Gymnasium; and Latin from one at the Real-Gymnasium. It is only those who proceed from the Oberrealschule who are exempt from both.

The struggle has gone on for a long time. The majority in the Universities in 1869 opposed the concession to the Real-Gymnasium; but public opinion backed the government in granting the privilege.

The agitation for greater freedom is still active. It may be said that all parties are unanimous in favor of requiring Greek for students of theology and classical philology. As to the faculties of medicine and law, opinions are divided. Perhaps those in favor of retaining Greek for jurists are more numerous than those who would lay the burden on medical students. But popular opinion, and a large body of professional men also, would set both free.

Considerable regret is felt among teachers at the admission of "Latinless" students to the Universities, and consequently to the ranks of a profession which prides itself on its intellectual standard. Latin, of course, symbolises a certain grade of culture.

But the change was inevitable. The reply to objectors is based on a broad principle. The Universities belong to the nation. All who have attained a sufficient intellectual training have a right to enjoy the benefits to be derived from a prolongation of their studies. Nor would it be right to exclude an able teacher from the higher walks of his profession, because he might not have one particular taste in common with his colleagues.

In this, as in all walks of life, exceptional talent will prove its own justification. It is, perhaps, a little remarkable to find the government more liberal in tone than the universities; that is, taking a wider view of national requirements, and, it must

NEW "LEHRPLAN."

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B.	III. A.	II. B.	II. A.	I. B.	I. A.	Total.
1. Religious Instruction	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
2. German	4	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	26
3. Latin	8	8	7	7	7	7	6	6	6	62
4. Greek	—	—	—	6	6	6	6	6	6	36
5. French	—	—	4	3	3	3	2	2	2	19
6. English	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	6
7. History	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	26
8. Geography			2	1	1	1				
9. Mathematics	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	34
10. Natural Science	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	—	8
11. Physics	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	2	10
	23	21	26	28	28	30	30	30	30	246

OLD "LEHRPLAN."

	VI.	V.	IV.	III. B.	III. A.	II. B.	II. A.	I. B.	I. A.	Total.
1. Religious Instruction	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19
2. German	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	21
3. Latin	9	9	9	9	9	8	8	8	8	77
4. Greek	—	—	—	7	7	7	7	6	6	40
5. French	—	4	5	2	2	2	2	2	2	21
6. History / 7. Geography	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	28
8. Mathematics	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	34
9. Natural Science	2	2	2	2	2	—	—	—	—	10
10. Physics	—	—	—	—	—	2	2	2	2	8
	24	26	28	30	30	30	30	30	30	258

The new plan comes into force at Easter, 1892. The old plan dates from 31st March, 1882.

be added, takng a juster view of what is meant by intellectual culture. It is well known, too, that the government is so far from lowering the intellectual standard that the state examinations are severe and exacting. True intellectual culture is best promoted by a wise latitude. Nothing is more to be deprecated than the exaction of a mere pass qualification. It diverts the attention from serious study, and proves a source of infinite vexation and disgust. Nor is it just, nor in the long run possible, for a majority of the community to impose on the minority its own views of what may or may not be necessary for intellectual salvation. — *London Journal of Education.*

AIMS AND METHODS IN LITERATURE INSTRUCTION.

MARGARET HILL, SPRINGFIELD HIGH SCHOOL, MASSACHUSETTS.

BACON says: "Reading maketh a full man; conference, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."

Briefly, then, we have here our aims and methods, but with this limitation, we make only the start, and do not expect to know the full fruition of our labors. Everything tends to stamp the high school work as introductory. The pupils' age and preparation, the limited time, all combine to render it hardly possible to consider our work from any other point of view. The fact that many of our pupils do not enter college but close their school life with the conclusion of their high school course, does not alter the case. The work for them, as for the others, is merely introductory: and they should so understand it. The study of literature in school will be valuable only as it proves an incentive to further progress.

Setting aside, then, for the time being the ultimate end in view, what especial mile stones shall we endeavor to reach? Our hope is that when the pupils have finished their course, they will have a clear, general outline of the subject, more or less minute; that they will be able to read thoughtfully and intelligently the English classics; that they will have formed a taste for reading, a taste which

will benefit, not injure them; that they will be able to think clearly if not deeply on these subjects and to express their thoughts in creditable English.

This is our aim, what we desire for every class, every pupil. The results we attain vary through the entire scale from failure to satisfaction.

The main work consists in a study of the literature itself, a study first of all for the author's thought; but which, if the class be sufficiently prepared, may include a study of the general characteristics of his style.

But what shall a study of the literature include? "The world of books is a wide one, so wide that we can make no effort even to touch the compass of it." We can only select a few representative figures such as shall seem, to the best of our knowledge, to be representative of their age.

The authors once settled upon, several lines of work are open to our choice. Selected productions may be read aloud in class. This includes the prepared reading and the sight reading. If the work be assigned for preparation, a clear comprehension of the thought and a rendering which will make that thought clear to others are required. Also, as a matter of technical drill, the correct pronunciation of all words, the ability to define them, and the explanation of allusions are insisted on. If, however, the allusions are such that they cannot readily be found and so would require too much time and effort on the part of the pupil, the explanations may be supplied by the teacher.

The sight reading as the name indicates, is simply a class exercise, and requires, on the pupils' part at least, no preparation. This, as well as the former reading, is followed by a discussion of the thought. Since, then, no preparation is required for the recitation, we can use the accumulated study hours of several days for outside reading or other exercises of which I will speak hereafter. For example, a class studying Scott may spend the recitation hours of Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday reading at sight his poetry. The study periods of those days will be spent in required reading on his prose. Then by Thursday the class will be ready to make their report. A careful report either oral or written must always be required on the matter read outside. Without this report, the work is a mere farce, and just in proportion to the accuracy demanded in the statement, will be the pupils' care in the reading.

Another exercise, one which combines a good test of the pupil's grasp on the author's thought and of his power of expression, is the reproduction or paraphrasing of worthy matter. In choice of matter, the following points are usually observed: — that the selection be unfamiliar to the class; that it be short and the thought easily followed; that, at first at least, the statement be simple rather than figurative. As the pupils advance we may pass from concrete to abstract thought, from the simple to the figurative language. The production thus selected is read to the class slowly, distinctly, and once only.

I know of no work more beneficial. It not only serves to test the pupils' advance but it also acts as a direct stimulus in the future work. Those who have failed to get the thought are a little chagrined, but the next time they listen more attentively and more thoughtfully. Moreover this work gives the needed drill in expression, and last, but by no means least, it adds to the pupils' stock of words.

The worst and commonest fault of themes generally presented is utterly commonplace language. The paraphrasing is especially helpful in this particular. The pupil listens with the utmost attention that he may gain the exact thought and, so doing, unconsciously associates certain words with certain ideas, — thus enriching his vocabulary. However, all study of good literature assists in these respects; for if one reads understandingly the best thoughts of the best minds, he will not only widen his knowledge, seeing through the eyes of another, but will also gain in power of thought and expression.

Though I make the study of the literature itself the most important feature, I do not agree with some of the recent writers on this subject who would exclude all study about the literature and about the authors. This should generally come after the work on the literature itself, but nevertheless it has its place.

After the children have read and thought for themselves, it will do them no harm to know the opinions of the great critics. Indeed many of these criticisms form a part of our standard literature. The objection is made that the pupils will then take their opinions ready made. However, while the critics are so at war among themselves that would be extremely difficult, and in fact the general tendency among our pupils seems to be to question rather than to accept anyone's opinions.

As regards the work about the author, if the pupils are really interested in the productions read, they will wish to know something of the writer. I do not suggest any extensive work in biography; only that the class be required to know the general course of the author's life and those important events which have served to mould his character or have exerted a marked influence on his career; and above all that they know to what age, to what group of writers, he belongs. This work may be made to serve other purposes than merely building up the pupils' store of facts. The presentation of their statements in strict outline form develops the logical faculty and gives the needed drill in conciseness of expression. Nor is the biographical essay a thing to be despised. If the material used be taken from a lecture by the teacher, the class will thus learn the art of note taking. Indeed in the beginning there will generally be need of some special instruction on this point. If on the other hand the pupils gather their own material from reading, they will at the same time gain an acquaintance with books and will learn how to handle them. To have a working knowledge of a library is no small step toward literary culture.

Though I have omitted thus far any mention of time as a limiting element, I am aware of its importance. In most schools—I do not, but I might, say all schools—the time is all too short. To the end, then, of making the most of what we have, the work must be carefully planned from the start. In the Springfield schools we have sixty weeks for the study of literature, and dividing the time in proportion to the relative importance of the subjects, we give twenty weeks to American literature and forty weeks to English literature.

We are really contractors limited as to time; and so we must know before the start what is to be done, when and where and how each detail is to be accomplished. The entire ground must be looked over and the work mapped out. We will take for example the American literature; it naturally divides itself into four periods:—the Colonial or Theological era, the Revolutionary, the Progressive, and the Present.

The first two are relatively unimportant, and as between the third and fourth, the third ranks first since it contains those authors whose standing is comparatively fixed. We will therefore spend two weeks on the first period, three on the second, eight on the third and five on the fourth, making in all eighteen weeks, and leaving a margin of two weeks for examinations, unexpected holidays, etc.

The dates inclusive of each period must be settled, and the main historical facts studied in the relations they bear to the literature. This work serves not only to fix the historical outline in the pupil's mind but to develop his reasoning powers, teaching him to look below the surface and search for causes. Each period should have a name significant, if possible, of its literature. An interesting exercise may be made of this by leaving the naming until after the study of the period and then asking the class to bring in appropriate names.

A class in American literature suggested the following for the first period: — the Colonial Era, the Theological Period, the Infancy of American Literature, the Formative Period. The reasons for and against each were discussed and the name settled by vote of the class.

There is little danger after this that your class will forget the salient characteristics of the period. However, if the best results are to be attained, the work must be planned still more closely, even to every day's recitation. Let us examine a page taken at random from a note-book containing such a plan.

MON. *Review.* Statesmen of 2nd Period.
Advance. Finish reading the Vision of Sir Launfal. Discussion.

TUES. *Review.* General Character of 2nd Period.
Advance. Report on Lowell's Prose.

WED. Recitation of Poems selected and memorized by pupils.

THURS. *Review.* Irving.
Advance. Report of Critics' opinions on Lowell's works. Discussion.

MON. *Review.* Irving and Cooper.
Advance. Outline of Life of Lowell handed in. Recitation work, writing of Paraphrase.

I can not emphasize enough the value of such planning. It is the veritable stitch in time which saves nine. It means a great deal of work to start with, but it means in the end both a great saving of time and infinitely more satisfactory results.

As the plan indicates, the review is done little by little at the same time with the advance, occupying usually about ten minutes of each recitation. This review like the advance, is assigned for preparation. But questions on review work not assigned are frequently introduced, especially questions calling for a knowledge of the histor-

ical outline, as the dates of this or that period, to what period does such a writer belong, etc. One question a day of this kind takes very little time; but it gives the needed drill. The constant falling of a drop of water will wear away the hardest stone. The constant recurrence to important facts will fix them in the mind of the average pupil, and I, for one, know of nothing else that will.

Thus reading, memorizing, conversing, writing, we strive that each recitation may bring its quota of facts, or make its step toward the development of taste, or add its item of drill, and all to this end: the development of the pupils' powers and capabilities, opening his eyes to the treasures within his reach, filling him with a thirst for wider and higher knowledge.

HAMLET'S MADNESS AGAIN.

HENRY B. LATHROP, HARVARD COLLEGE.

THE author of the article entitled, "Was Hamlet Insane and Pretending Insanity?" which was published in THE ACADEMY for February, is very sure that he has finally reconciled the opposing views about Hamlet's madness. "Upon this common ground, that Hamlet is actually insane, but nevertheless tries to simulate insanity, we can all meet." He is equally certain that he looks at the subject from a new point of view. "Instead of debating the old and threadbare question, 'Was Hamlet insane or pretending insanity?'" he hopes "by the change of a single word, *or* to *and*, so to centralize the thought that the warring currents shall unite into one."

It is pathetic to find that the facts hardly justify such eager confidence either in the originality or the reconciling power of Dr. MacDonald's argument. As a glance at the second volume of Furness's Variorum Hamlet shows, nearly everybody who has maintained that Hamlet was insane, has been very well aware that he was simulating insanity at the same time. To take a single instance, George Farren, in his Observations on the Laws of Mortality and Disease (*apud* Furness, p. 199) asserts that Hamlet's mind was affected from the first, and asks whether the assumption of the rôle of a madman were not under the circumstances a clear act of insanity.

These words were printed fifty-three years ago, and since then there has been much "throwing about of brains" on both sides of the question. Dr. MacDonald, therefore, instead of "uniting the currents" by his "compromise," "into one grand stream," has simply troubled the waters anew. His new question is the "old" question over again, — not yet "threadbare," I hope: such a question cannot lose its interest till it is once for all settled and settled right.

Dr. MacDonald and all the advocates of Hamlet's insanity whose arguments I have read, as well as many who maintain the other side, fundamentally misconceive the subject they undertake to discuss. It is a question not of pathology, but of dramatic art: not whether an "alienist" would judge Hamlet insane after careful study, but whether Hamlet would seem insane to an audience. Now only broad and forceful effects are appropriate on the stage. A play, being rapid in movement, allowing no time for minute analysis while the action is progressing, and being essentially popular, must be instantly and generally intelligible; and every important point should be striking in itself, and so emphasized and iterated, that if possible not a single auditor can fail to understand it. A dramatist must be a scene-painter: he must splash his colors on with a broom.

Accordingly, a playwright who should present a case of insanity, however accurately studied from life, in such a way that only a medical specialist could interpret the symptoms, would be violating the first principles of his art. The layman, whom Dr. MacDonald hints out of the argument, is in fact the only judge. Experts in insanity would not care to write about Hamlet if they did not think him insane; for then there would be no pathological interest in the case.

As Dr. MacDonald says, "By the laity no one is considered insane unless he show manifest signs of derangement." Nothing is much more vexatious to a physician than to be called before a jury to testify about a case of insanity. It is impossible to show a jury that there are many kinds of insanity: that some insane murderers deserve hanging as richly as any other villains, while others are quite irresponsible; or that a rich man who weeps for fear he shall die in the poor-house may be competent to make a will. If this be so now, when some knowledge of the meaning of insanity is current in the world, what would have been the feelings of an audience in the age of Elizabeth, when the treatment of the maniac was a cell, chains, straw, and the lash, while the idiot ran about the streets

and made sport for the idle; what would an audience of those days have thought if some power had told them they were expected to perceive that the hero of the play was afflicted with paroxysms of emotional insanity, which needed subtle study to be determined, while at the same time he simulated insanity of a kindred type? Yet, if Shakespeare were not sure that he could appeal thus to the intelligence of his audience, he was an inartistic dramatist; or rather, since he wrote his plays for money, a fool.

This one consideration seems to me enough to settle the question of Hamlet's insanity. But Dr. MacDonald supports his view by the citation of several passages from the play, and it may be well to examine the interpretation he puts upon them.

He "reasonably supposes" that Hamlet was much like other young men, and so by nature not melancholy; but if anything is plain, it is that Hamlet was of a studious temperament; and students, as Aristotle and old Burton hardly need tell us, are prone to melancholy. Dr. MacDonald also learns from Hamlet's greeting to Horatio *(We'll teach you to drink deep)*, that the prince has known the joys of drinking deep himself. Such ingenious misinterpretation could not be surpassed by the most philosophic of Germans. The king was "drinking to Hamlet," after the swinish custom

> "More honor'd in the breach than in the observance,"

and Hamlet's words are at once playful to Horatio, melancholy in their relation to himself, and bitter in their reference to the king.

We are told that "Hamlet's first soliloquy shows a mind diseased, not necessarily insane. . . . . When a young man two months" — Dr. MacDonald might plausibly have said four months:

> "'Tis twice two months, my lord,"—

"two months after his father's death becomes so melancholic as seriously to think of committing suicide, his mind cannot be considered normal." This implies that Hamlet's melancholy was due solely to his father's death: the rest of the soliloquy shows that it was due much more to his mother's marriage, and his abhorrence of his uncle.

> "O that this too, too solid flesh would melt,
> Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew!
> Or that the Everlasting had not fix'd
> His canon 'gainst self-slaughter! O God! O God!

How weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable
Seem to me all the uses of this world!
Fie on't! O fie! 'tis an unweeded garden,
That grows to seed; things rank and gross in nature
Possess it merely. That it should come to this!
But two months dead! — nay, not so much, not two:
So excellent a king; that was, to this,
Hyperion to a satyr; so loving to my mother
That he might not beteem the winds of heaven
Visit her face too roughly. Heaven and earth!
Must I remember? Why, she would hang on him,
As if increase of appetite had grown
By what it fed on; And yet within a month —
Let me not think on't: — Frailty, thy name is woman! —
A little month; or ere those shoes were old
With which she follow'd my poor father's body,
Like Niobe, all tears; — why she, even she —
O heaven! a beast, that wants discourse of reason,
Would have mourn'd longer, — married with my uncle,
My father's brother, but no more like my father
Than I to Hercules.
— O most wicked speed, to post
With such dexterity to incestuous sheets!"

Hamlet's father, whom he loved and reverenced with a feeling little if at all short of idolatry, had died; and his uncle, whom he scorned, had succeeded to the throne. It is easy to understand the character of this uncle. He was plainly a sot, and a lecher; a man with a vigorous faculty for business, vulgar tastes, and no conscience. Hamlet's mother, in four months at most, very likely in one month, marries the new king. Her affection for him was evidently sensual, and Hamlet could easily see this, though he did not yet know that she had committed adultery before her first husband's death. The mother's marriage at any time might well have seemed sacreligious to Hamlet; within four months of the king's death it was horrible; but to see her married to this sensual drunkard, who would "paddle in her neck with his damn'd fingers" and court her with "reechy kisses," was loathsome. Bitterer still, perhaps, was suffering the insult of patronage from the fellow. Imagine Nathaniel Hawthorne step-son to a ward politician, and kept at home by him: would melancholy at the end of four months be very wonderful?

Hamlet, a contemplative, pure, and thoughtful young man, had had his first glimpse of the evil that is in men, and the sight made all the world hateful to him.

Hamlet's "breaking off in the current of his denunciation" after the departure of the ghost, "to jot down the trivial observation

'One may smile and smile and be a villain,'"

is said to be characteristic of an insane mind.

The jotting down of these words may show that Hamlet was for the time overwrought — any action, however trivial, might well be a relief at such a moment — but the words themselves are typical, in their ironical contrast between the triviality of their appearance and their significance. This type of irony is characteristic of Hamlet.

Lowell calls attention to it, and is of course exemplified in the exclamation,

"How now! a rat? Dead for a ducat, dead!"

which Dr. MacDonald regards as inconsequential.

Hamlet comes to his mother's room; finds that he is treacherously watched, he supposes by his uncle; and stabs at the spy. Certainly to call the king a *rat* was no worse than to call him a *mildew'd ear*.

The limits of my space do not permit me to follow Dr. MacDonald through his other citations. I have tried to discuss those which seemed most important, and I leave them now in order to consider evidence which perhaps is not in itself conclusive, but which seems to me strong in connection with a study of the play.

The story of Hamlet was told in French by Belleforest in 1570, and an English translation of the French tale, the *Hystorie of Hamblet*, appeared later. Whether the *Hystorie* preceded or followed the play, is a question about which doctors disagree; in either case, Belleforest's tale was one of the most important sources of the drama. The English version had evidently some very close connection with the play. The most important incidents are the same; the differences serve mainly to give dramatic unity and a tragic close to the somewhat desultory tale; and certain incidents (the exclamation, "A rat! a rat!" for instance) are common to the play and the *Hystorie*, and are not found in the French.

Now Shakespeare, to be sure, might not have followed the tale; but if he did depart from the accepted form of the story, he would most plainly have indicated his intention. If Hamlet was mad in the tale he was mad in the play; if he was not mad in the tale, and was to be mad in the play, he would have been made so obviously

mad that anyone in the audience whether or no familiar with the story, would have recognized his insanity.

In the tale, Hamlet is perfectly sane.

"The prince Hamblet, ... to beguile the tyrant, ... counterfeited the madman, with . . . . . craft and subtill practises. . . . . Hamblet, in this sort counterfeiting the madde man, many times did divers actions of great and deep consideration, and often made such and so fitte answers that a wise man would soone have judged from what spirite so fine an invention might proceede." He remains perfectly sane, and ascends the throne after taking his uncle's life. It is fair to assume, therefore, since the indications of Hamlet's reputed insanity are so delicate, that Shakespeare did not mean to represent him as insane.

The *Hystorie*, by the way, explains Hamlet's roughness to Ophelia, and states the relations between Gertrude and Hamlet's uncle even more plainly than the ghost does.

Goethe's interpretation of Hamlet, so well known that I will not quote it, remains unshaken. The prince, a student, unversed in the practices of the world, comes home to his father's death, and his mother's shocking marriage. This first view of evil throws him into a natural melancholy. All his suspicions are confirmed, and worse is told him by a supernatural visitant whom he cannot but revere and credit; he has laid upon him a dreadful duty. Though he is gifted with all the good gifts of nature except the power to do, his malady of too much thought and his repugnance at the deed keep him from action.

Contrasted with this pure and noble spirit, so contemplative that he can accomplish nothing, is the king, — coarse, vascular, executive; the tragedy is of the old Æschylean type — it is Fate that brings these two contrasted characters, by a series of accidents, to their death; Horatio tells not of the destruction of that "noble and most sovereign reason," but

> "Of carnal, bloody, and unnatural acts;
> Of accidental judgments, casual slaughters;
> Of death put on by cunning, and forc'd cause;
> And, in this upshot, purposes mistook
> Fall'n on the inventors' heads."

A tragedy in which an insane person simulates insanity would indeed be a subject worthy of Shakespeare. The irony of nature in

the contrast between the hero's real state, and the state in which he supposes he is, would be one of the most tragic of motives. The development of such a theme, however, would make a tragedy very different from Hamlet. We should see the steady growth of the malady — the patient's horrible unconsciousness — perhaps a recognition sudden or gradual, of his state and his powerlessness; and the catastrophy would be either the total eclipse of reason or else suicide.

Such a play is of course not the tragedy of Hamlet, and if Hamlet is regarded as insane after the appearance of the ghost, the tragic interest of the struggle made by the inexecutive Hamlet to do his work, and of the inexorable march of fate is entirely lost. Further, the development of no other tragic motive takes its place. "The peculiar form of Hamlet's insanity," Dr. MacDonald writes, "does not vary throughout the play." Hamlet, if insane, is no more insane when he stabs the king, than when he jots down, "a man may smile and smile, and be a villain." Horatio's "carnal, bloody, and unnatural acts" and the rest, have no longer any tragic significance as instances of the power of chance, but become a mere chaos of incident without relation to anybody or anything.

To accept Dr. MacDonald's view, we must suppose that Shakespeare, an active playwright, had the leisure and the opportunity to acquire a more minute knowledge of insanity than any physician of his era, or else that he was inspired with prophetic insight. We must suppose that he would have chosen a subject unintelligible to his age and to most audiences in every age. We must suppose that without clearly indicating his intention, he departed from the story on which his play was based. We must make all these suppositions, and even then we have still to suppose, on the the theory that Hamlet was insane and pretended insanity, that Shakespeare wrote a play which is greatly tragic by accident, but which if interpreted by the right theory — Dr. MacDonald's, namely — proves the admiration of three centuries to have been wasted on a hodge-podge of bungling confusion.

HINTS FOR TEACHERS OF ELEMENTARY LATIN.

JOHN C. ROLFE, UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.

1. ***Pronunciation and Reading of the Latin.*** Pupils should be taught to pronounce Latin accurately, indicating clearly the distinction between long and short vowels. This end may be attained in various ways. The rules of quantity should be learned gradually with the declensions and conjugations. To acquire them in this way adds little to the pupil's daily task; while for one who has been allowed to pronounce carelessly until he enters college to attempt to reform his pronunciation is an enormously difficult and discouraging labor; it is really well-nigh hopeless. There is a close analogy in this respect with the use of correct English.

As not all quantities are determined by rule, but a great many must be learned from memory and practice, it would seem a time-saving device to provide the pupil in the earlier stages of his reading with a text in which the quantities are marked. Having once learned to pronounce a word correctly, and ***having never been allowed to mispronounce it,***[1] he is likely to continue to pronounce correctly when his texts are no longer marked, and to be led to look up for himself the quantity of words which are new to him.

Pupils should also be taught to read Latin aloud with such expression that it is evident without translation whether or not they understand the meaning of what they have read. They should acquire the habit of doing this ***without translating, even in the mind.*** Reading the Latin, therefore, should not be an occasional exercise, but a regular and important part of each and every recitation, and of the pupil's preparation for recitation. In this connection, as well as an important aid in writing Latin, the practice of committing to memory selected passages of Latin, and reciting them with correctness and expression, is a most helpful exercise which is too often wholly neglected.

[1] In correcting an error, the teacher should not repeat the faulty pronunciation. If possible, ***let the pupil never hear a Latin word mispronounced.***

2. *Translation.* Translation into English should be insisted on. To comprehend the meaning of a Latin sentence, and to express that meaning in idiomatic English, are two distinct and equally valuable arts. They should be made as distinct as possible. The pupil should learn to grasp the meaning of a Latin sentence *in the original, following the order of the Latin words.* He should also learn to express that meaning in *idiomatic* English. A literal translation should never be allowed, unless it happen to be also idiomatic. The charge is often seriously made that the study of Latin ruins one's English style, and a real danger undoubtedly exists. If, however, the pupil be trained from the outset to *think in Latin*, bad English need never be used to explain the meaning of difficult sentences.

The ear should be trained as well as the eye. Therfore the pupil should occasionally be called on to translate, without the text before him, passages read to him by his teacher. Often pupils who have acquired some facility in translating are unable to comprehend simple sentences when read to them, or even to write them in Latin from dictation.

Pupils should acquire the ability to understand and translate any Latin in which words and constructions are, or may be, familiar to them; that is to say, to translate at sight. To this end they should master all new constructions, and should learn once for all the meanings of new words. They may be greatly helped in the latter regard by having their attention called to the derivation of new words, and to the force and meaning of suffixes and prefixes. The force of particles should also be carefully studied.

3. *Latin Writing and Latin Composition.* The ability to write idiomatic Latin, and to express one's self orally in Latin, is of the highest value; not for its own sake, but because in no other way can a knowledge of forms and constructions, and a feeling for the idioms of the language, be so easily acquired. Constant practice of this kind in the earlier years of a pupil's course gives an accuracy of expression which can be acquired only with great difficulty later.

Daily practice in translating English into Latin should not cease, as is too often the case, when the pupil finishes his first Latin book, but should be continued at least throughout his preparatory course. The pupil should begin as soon as possible to translate continuous passages into Latin, and to write short compositions in Latin.

The translation of detached sentences, while of little value as a means of learning to write Latin, may be made a valuable preparation for writing Latin, and provided the work be done *orally* and *very rapidly*, a generally helpful exercise to train the pupil in expressing himself fluently in Latin, giving *instantly* the equivalent of each English word, and to cultivate the habit of carefully noting the meaning of all Latin words while reading.

Sentences of this kind may be supplemented by turning direct discourse into indirect, and *vice versa*, or by asking questions in Latin on the subject-matter of the lessons in translation, the replies being, of course, in Latin. The latter exercise is strongly recommended, since it also gives the pupil practice in translation at hearing.

Rapid oral translation into Latin in some form should be a daily exercise, and practice in the writing of Latin should be as frequent as possible. Time spent in this way will tell; while at first the amount of translation into English may be less on account of time given to translation into Latin, in the long run it will surely be greater, and it will be done with greater ease than if Latin composition be neglected or made an occasional exercise only.

4. *History, Geography, Mythology, and Antiquities.* In order to be prepared on his entrance to college to read the Latin authors rapidly, easily, and appreciatively, which we may assume to be the chief aim of the preparatory Latin course, the student must not only have the ability to understand and translate Latin of moderate difficulty at sight, but he must also have such a knowledge of the historical environment and of the conditions of Roman life, as to be able to assume an attitude of sympathy towards the author, and to look at things to some extent from the Roman point of view; in other words, he must know something of ancient history and geography, mythology, and of the life of the Romans in all its aspects; and the richer this knowledge is, the easier and more interesting will be his work. This knowledge he must, of course, acquire gradually, and to a great extent from his Latin reading.

Selections from the *Viri Romae* are especially adapted to the study of Roman history. The pupil should look up all proper names in the vocabulary, and should consult, if possible, the dictionaries of geography, antiquities, biography, and mythology. It is easy to interest pupils in work of this kind, especially if graphic

illustrations are given by means of photographs, maps, engravings, etc., and it is, therefore, the more to be wondered at that most pupils who enter college, even from the best schools, are so lamentably weak in this respect.

5. *Parallel Reading in English.* Pupils should be encouraged to read in English on the lines of their work in Latin. A stirring poem or an interesting historical novel will often make an impression when the formal work of the class-room has failed to do so, and most young people are readily interested in reading of this kind. Especially adapted to the purpose are Macaulay's 'Lays of Ancient Rome' and parts of Byron's 'Childe Harold.' For a selected list of historical novels see Kelsey's 'Fifty Topics in Roman Antiquities,'[1] pp. 69, 70.

THE NEW ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL AT CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

THE growing interest in the material equipment of schools is leading more and more towards an intelligent consideration of the subject of school architecture. We are often asked what buildings we would suggest as models of high school construction, and teachers and building committees are constantly searching for information regarding the latest improvements both in general plans and in details. All this interest is in the highest degree encouraging. As a possible answer to possible questions we print in this number of THE ACADEMY cuts of the elevation and floor plans of the new English High School at Cambridge, Mass. This building has within a few days been occupied by the school of which Mr. Frank A. Hill is principal. Work on the foundation was begun in September, 1889, and since the spring of 1890 has proceeded without interruption. The building stands on a wide plot of land donated to the city of Cambridge by Mr. Frederick H. Rindge, and forms

[1] Allyn & Bacon, Boston.

one of a group of three buildings, of which the other two, the Manual Training School and the Public Library are gifts of Mr. Rindge to his native city. The school house is especially fortunate in its situation. The streets between which it stands are unusually quiet, and the grounds are large enough to allow a space for one hundred feet of lawn in front and an extensive play ground behind. It is thus shut off from external noises as few city high schools can possibly be.

The foundation and first story are of granite. The rest of the building is built of Perth-Amboy brick. The external appearance, while massive and imposing, falls far behind the beauty of the exquisite architectural gem, the Public Library, which stands near it. The internal arrangements are well shown in the floor plans which we give. The lower hall is paved with marble tiling, the floors of all the rest of the building being of hard pine. The staircases are of iron, the treads and landings being filled with concrete. The finish in the corridors and assembly hall is of ash, in other parts of the building the wood work is of cypress. The black boards are of the best quality of slate and are unusually abundant and convenient. The building has been wired throughout for incandescent lighting, and the rooms are connected by a comprehensive system of bells and tubes. The system of heating is by indirect radiation, fresh air being brought in several feet above the ground, and conveyed over coils of steam pipes to the various rooms in the building. The ample ventilation shafts are shown very plainly in the drawings. Each of these shafts is fitted with steam pipes which create a constant current of air, and when we visited the building a few days ago everything was working capitally and the ventilation was as perfect as in any building we have ever seen, in fact all that could be desired. Exactly how this system will work in warm weather we cannot say, but shall look with interest at the results that are secured in the warm days that are sure to come before the end of the school year. We have never seen any system which has proved so serviceable at all temperatures and at all varying conditions as that of exhaust fans. The general use with which electricity has come as a motive power makes it possible to run such fans with the most possible economy of space and of trouble.

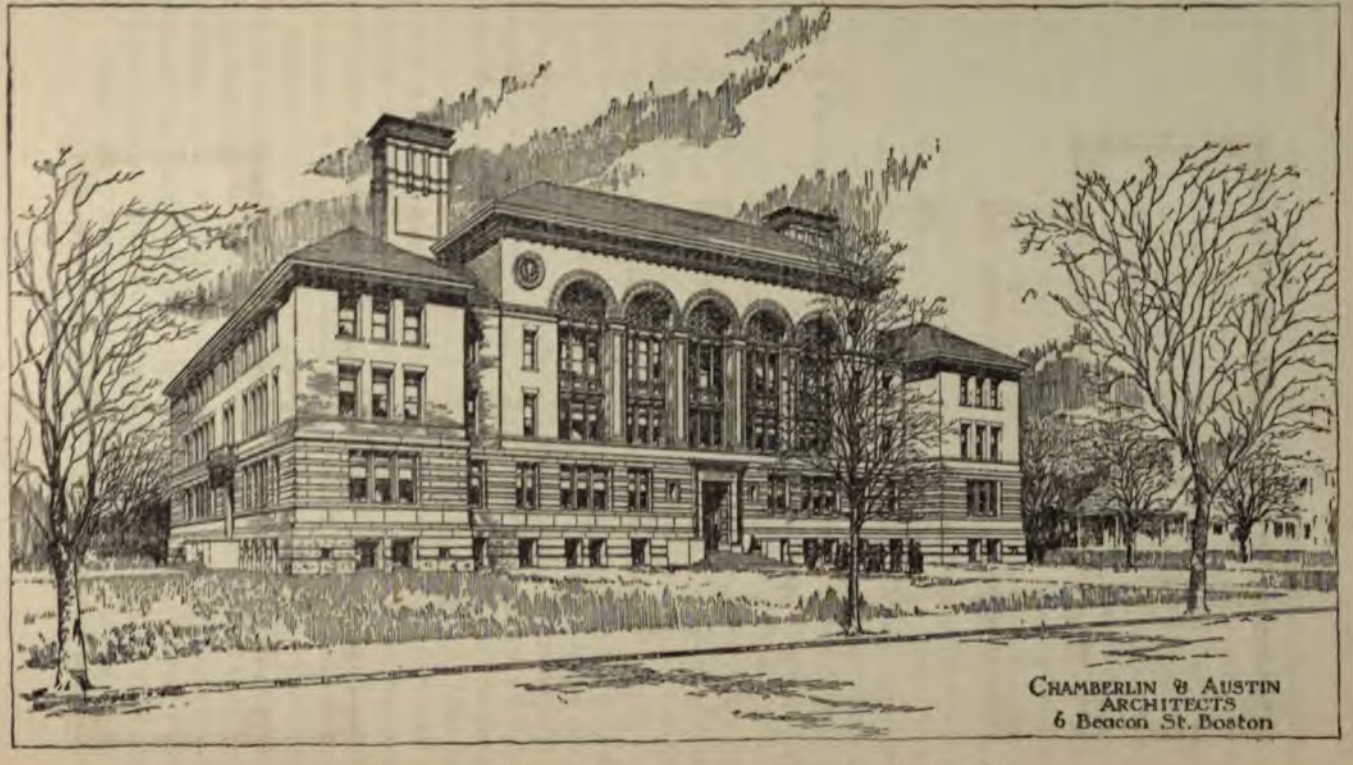
The [illegible] of light in the rooms of the building is ample, and for the most part the manner of its admittance is such as the best experts approve. The quantity of window glass which can

be used to uncover either the upper or lower part of the window at will. Many, however, would prefer a slight tint on the walls to the clear white color in which they are everywhere finished. All the class rooms, the assembly room, and the laboratories, are exposed to the direct light of the sun during some portion of the day. The space on the north side of the building is reserved for reception rooms, teachers' rooms, and similar uses. Two recitation rooms also, it will be seen, are situated on this side. The conveniences of teachers' rooms, principal's office, library, book room, and other appliances are ample and are admirably arranged. Not only are the corridors clear, reaching from end to end of the building, but through the recitation and cloak rooms, as will be seen, access can be had to all parts of the building in case from fire, or other accident, the corridors become impassable. The building will easily accommodate eight hundred pupils, and in case of necessity, there is ample ground in the rear for extending wings and even for making a complete quadrangle, if that is deemed desirable.

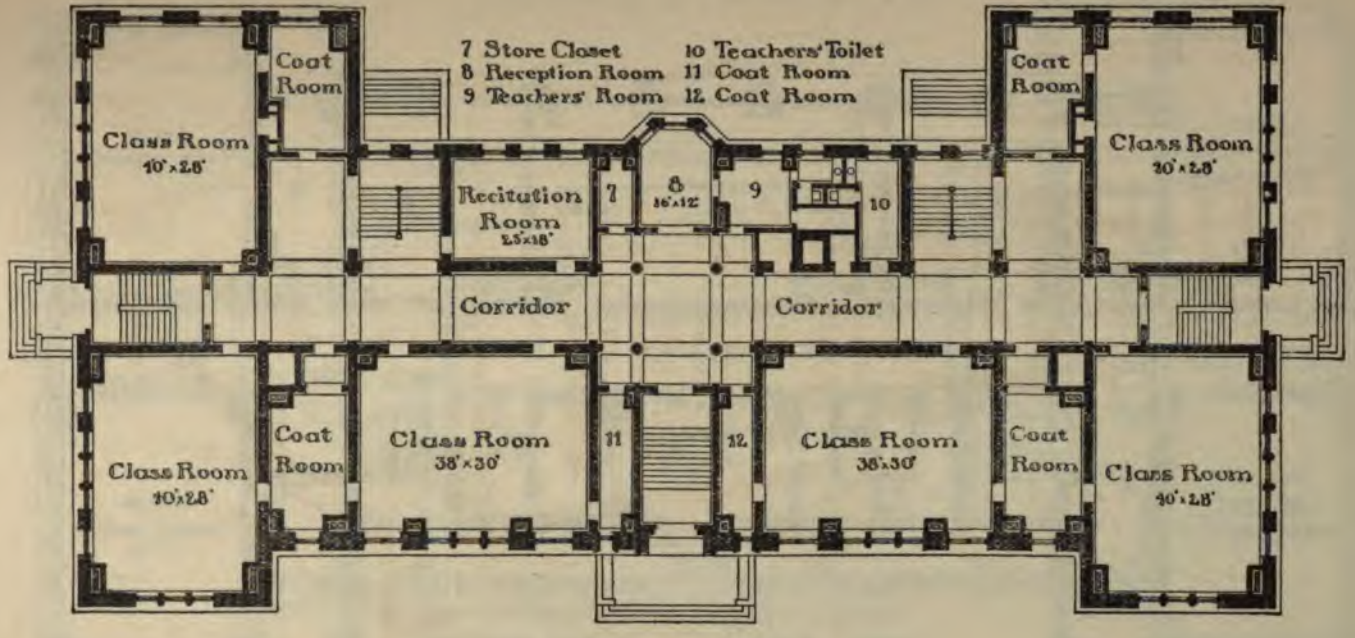
The assembly hall is easy of access and the accommodations of the stage and ante-rooms are superior to any that we have ever seen in a school building. The laboratories are fitted up for convenience rather than for show, containing not only ample working space for the pupils, but also a permanent bench extending round the room under the windows, admirably adapted to microscopical or other work which requires unusually good light.

The basement is large, well lighted and affords a capital gathering place for pupils during recess when the weather is such as to make out-door exercise undesirable. Here is also an ample lunch counter for the convenience of teachers and pupils.

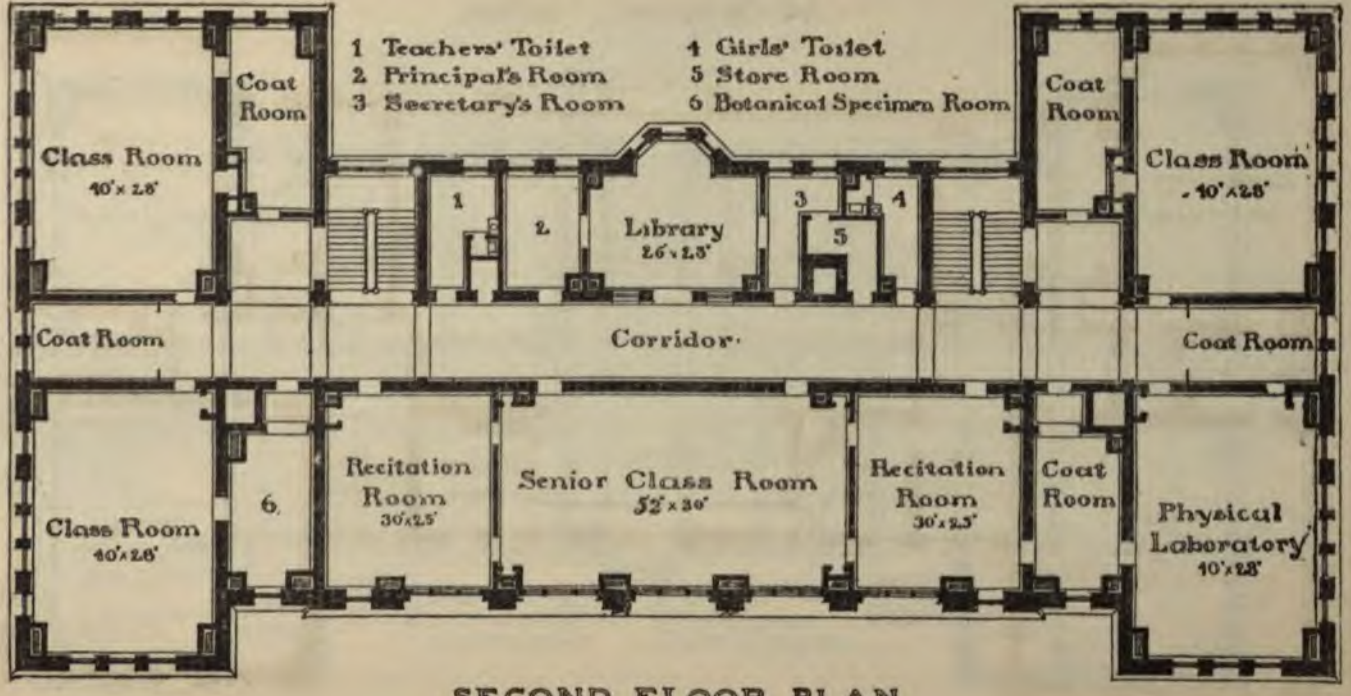
The entire cost of the building completed and furnished, is $220,000, an amount which seems by no means excessive when the size of the building and the completeness of its equipment are taken into consideration. Of course buildings of similar cost are out of the question except in large cities, or where private munificence is added to the outlay which public opinion ordinarily justifies in the erection of school houses. A smaller building, accommodating a less number of pupils and with proportionally less expense, could be erected on the same general plan with such modifications as necessary economy suggested. We know of no school building in the country where a like sum has been expended with better results.



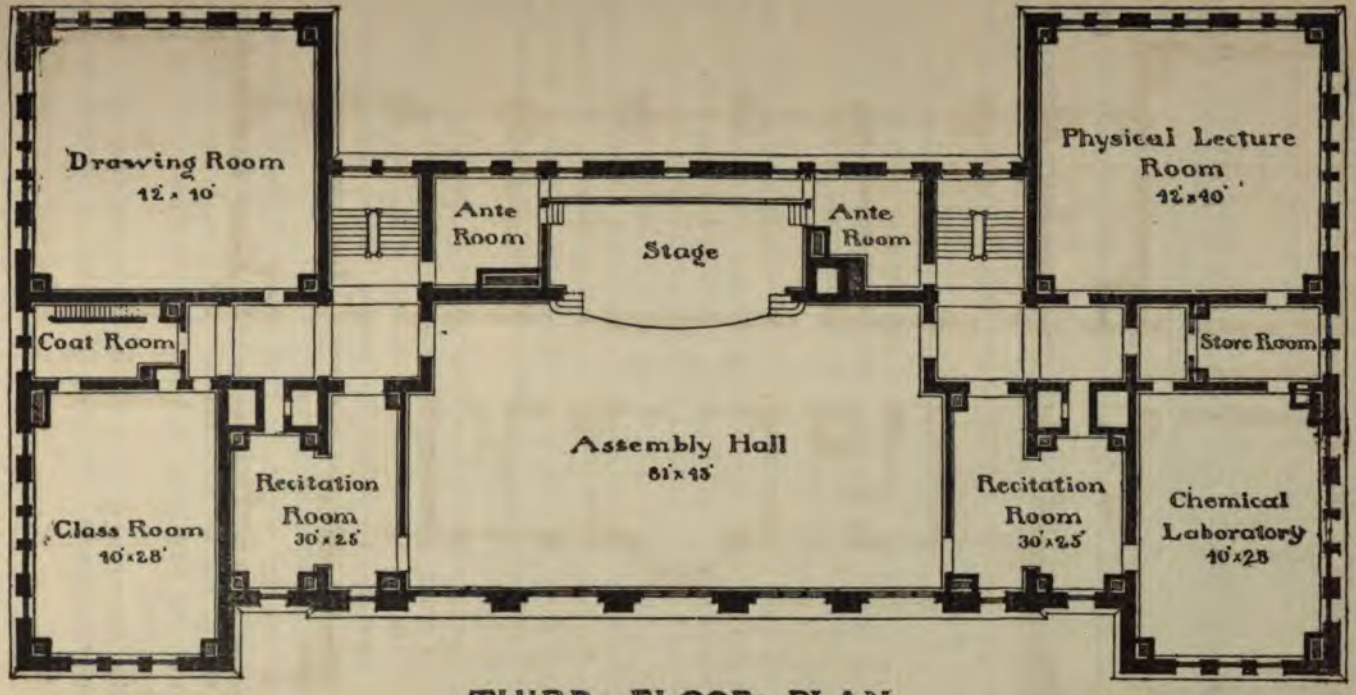
THE NEW ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING, CAMBRIDGE.



FIRST FLOOR PLAN



SECOND FLOOR PLAN



THIRD FLOOR PLAN

UNIFICATION AND CONSOLIDATION IN HIGH SCHOOL COURSES.

CHAS. W. GROVES, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL, KANKAKEE, ILLS.

SOME weeks ago the writer mailed requests to the various school principals in all parts of the state, for copies of the courses of study in their high schools. Sixty-five promptly responded, and to them I wish to tender my thanks.

A careful study of the courses referred to reveals two facts, that in many cases the individuality of the manager is unduly stamped upon his school, through the organization of its course of study, and that his idiosyncrasies stand out in bold relief in these curricula and plans of work.

For example, in one school, whose manager has a fine local reputation as a student of his work, physiology is studied throughout the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, a text-book being used in the seventh and eighth; in the high school curriculum this science is pursued for five terms out of nine, thus giving the pupil four and two-thirds years' work in the study. In another school in an adjoining county, presided over by a scholarly gentleman, physiology is not taught at all, but the course embraces the sciences of psychology, two terms, geology, two terms, astronomy, one term, as well as the study of Greek and elocution.

In a high school in the prosperous city of A. the study of English extends throughout the four years in both the classical and scientific courses. In the high school in the city of B., the reputation of whose manager is excellent, no training in the mother-tongue is given until the third year is reached. Thus many pupils do not receive the benefit accruing from the work.

In one city high school the critical study of English literature is pursued for three months in the second year, and the study of rhetoric, which, *per se*, should precede the work in literature, is reserved for the third year, and receives the attention of the pupil for six months.

In the high school of a city which shall be nameless, out of regard for its superintendent, the study of German is pursued for three

years, the natural sciences remaining a sealed book to those who choose this course.

In the English course of another high school whose superintendent stands high among the educators of the state, we find that the following studies are omitted, viz.: physiology, botany, zoölogy, physical geography, geology, and civil government.

A review of still another course reveals the fact that the studies algebra and geometry are begun and completed contemporaneously, with political economy, two terms, preceding the study of general history.

In the curricula of four of the reputable high schools of the state, one finds the study of geology receiving from one to three terms attention, while the science of physical geography is ignored.

One is surprised to learn that a certain high school manager has his pupils studying geology, political economy, and psychology, but gives them no opportunity to inquire into the sciences of zoölogy and physical geography. Such is the case in one of the leading smaller cities of Illinois.

A gentleman whose counsels are valued in our state educational meetings, and whose growing reputation is a matter of profound gratification to his many friends, excuses the pupils in his school who pursue Latin, from pursuing physics, zoölogy, civil government, general history, and physical geography.

In the high school of a city with a national reputation, the science of physiology is not taught, while the students are asked to peruse Gregory's Political Economy, and Wentworth's Trigonometry and Surveying.

In one of our Egyptian cities the high school curriculum does not embrace general history, yet the facilities for the study of Greek are said to be good.

The "Course" of a certain high school of central Illinois reveals the fact that its graduates are versed in geology and astronomy, but have no training in general history or zoölogy. In this school the studies of physics and algebra are concurrent.

In the high school under the direction of one, the hem of whose pedagogical robe the writer is not worthy to touch, a pupil must reach the winter term of the fourth year before he may pursue the study of rhetoric.

In the high school of M. no training in English is offered the pupil till the third year is reached, although the study of literature receives two years' attention.

In a high school in southern Illinois, the study of arithmetic is pursued throughout the first, second and third years.

Gray's School and Field Book of Botany is completed in three months during the first year in four of our high schools; the same text is assigned six months' time during the fourth year in three others.

An examination of the sixty-five courses of study shows that the study of algebra is found: —

In the	1st year,	9	months, in	30 schools.
"	1st and 2d years,	12	" "	13 "
"	1st and 2d "	15	" "	6 "
"	1st and 2d "	18	" "	7 "

The same text, Wells's Academic, is completed in nine months in the first year in one, and is pursued during the third and fourth years — eighteen months, — in another. The study of higher algebra is found in five schools, and higher arithmetic in eight.

Forty-nine school principals assign a year for the pursuit of geometry and designate the third year as the proper one. Four schools complete a certain text in the fourth year (three terms), eight others assign the same text to the second year for a period of six months.

Forty years ago a noted grammarian wrote: "The subjunctive mode is fading out of our language." So the study of trignometry seems to be fading out of the high school courses. It is found, however, in twenty of the courses examined.

Mental arithmetic was found in six schools, and commercial arithmetic in seven. The study of natural philosophy is omitted from one course, is taught for a period of three months in three schools, for two terms in twenty, and is assigned a year's time in forty-one. Its position in the course is from the first to the fourth year.

The science of astronomy is assigned a place in twenty-six of the curricula examined. In twenty-three it is assigned for one term, in three for two terms.

The science of physiology is taught in sixty-three of the sixty-five schools. Its place is from the first to the fourth year, thirty-eight placing it in the first year.

In	47	schools	it is pursued	1 term.
"	9	"	"	2 terms.
"	4	"	"	3 "
"	1	"	"	5 "

In seven schools that science which does so much toward securing the development of the observing powers of the pupil, zoölogy, is wholly omitted from the course. Thirty-five school principals prescribe three months for its prosecution, twenty-two assign six months; two think it worthy a full year's study. Steele's Zoölogy is pursued three months in one school, and one year in another. In many of the schools descriptive work alone is required.

The science of botany, the study of which does so much to cultivate a love for the beautiful in nature, to uplift the soul, as well as to awaken the dormant observing powers of the pupil, we find omitted from seven courses. The study is pursued for one term in thirty-one schools, for two terms in twenty-four, and for a full year in two.

Physical geography is studied for a period of three months in twenty-six schools, six months in seventeen, and a full year in three. Nineteen curricula omit it altogether.

Geology is taught in twenty-six schools, and omitted in thirty-nine. In some courses it is found in the second year, in others, in the third; while a larger number place it as a fourth year study. Sixteen say it should be studied for three months, ten for six months.

Few seem to consider psychology as properly belonging in the high school course, it being found in only one school in five. It is generally assigned for one term, four schools assigning six months for its completion.

The science of political economy is found in twenty-three of the courses, for one term's work in all except two. In eighteen it is placed in the last year, while in one curriculum its place is in the second year.

The writer was amazed to find that in eighteen of the courses, the science of civil government was omitted entirely; — a lamentable fact, certainly. The study is pursued for three months in thirty-nine schools, and for six months in eight.

11 assign it as 1st year's work.
16 " " 2d " "
9 " " 3d " "
11 " " 4th " "

The study of commercial law is found in five schools.

Several high school managers by their printed courses say that they find no place in their schools for the study of general history Five others give it a place for one half-year's work. Forty-eight

give it a year's time, and three assign three years as the length of time it merits the pupils' attention. Its assignment in the courses is as follows: —

In	1st year in	7	schools.
"	2d or 3d year in	40	"
"	4th "	9	"
"	5th "	1	"

The study of rhetoric is not found in twelve of these schools.

In	8	it is found in the		1st	year.
"	32	"	"	2d	"
"	11	"	"	3d	"
"	2	"	"	4th	"

In	22	schools	it is pursued for a period of			3	months.
"	9	"	"	"	"	6	"
"	17	"	"	"	"	9	"
"	2	"	"	"	"	a longer time.	

In the great majority of the curricula examined, some preparatory work in English preceded the study of rhetoric, a feature worthy of commendation.

The study of English and American literature is assigned a place in the first year's work in two schools; in the second year in two, in the third year in twenty-one, in the fourth year in twenty, and in the fifth year in one. In eighteen no special assignment is made for this work, the training and culture given being in the line of reading, the English Classics series or the Riverside series being the texts, and the work extending throughout the course. The writer is pleased to note the large number of schools in which this valuable work, the critical reading of the classics of our literature, has been introduced. Its ennobling effect upon the lives of young men and women cannot well be over-estimated.

The results concerning drawing are very unsatisfactory. It is taught to a greater or less extent in about one-third of the schools, but in few does it receive much attention.

Word analysis is found as a prescribed study in only three schools.

In many so-called high schools during the first year the pupils are doing grammar grade work.

Book-keeping is taught in two-thirds of the high schools of the state.

Concerning the Classics, the study of Latin is pursued,

for	1 year,	in 5	schools.
"	2 years,	8	"
"	3 "	20	"
"	4 "	29	"
"	5 "	1	"

The schools in which the study is pursued for three, four or five years have practically the same assignment of work, viz.: Grammar and Reader, Cæsar, Cicero, and Virgil, and work in Latin prose composition. Greek is found in one-fourth of the high schools of the state, varying in time from two to four years.

The German Language is taught in twenty-eight schools,

for	1 year,	in 2	schools.
"	2 years,	5	"
"	3 "	8	"
"	4 "	13	"

A very commendable feature in many of the curricula examined may be noted; namely, a review of the common branches during the last year. Of the graduates of these schools it cannot truthfully be said, "They cannot pass a fair examination in the common branches."

In many of the schools there are no requirements concerning rhetoricals, and the query naturally arises, is not this topic of sufficient importance to receive careful attention from school managers?

In the foregoing cursory review of the high school courses of Illinois, the need of unification and consolidation is apparent to every one. While the various communities may from force of circumstances require curricula differing in details, there must be an ideal course toward which all may work.

Among the advantages to accrue from a unification and consolidation of the curricula may be cited briefly:

1st. An *approved sequence* in the order of the presentation of the various studies would be secured.

2d. Each study would then receive its reasonable share of attention in all the schools.

3d. The assignment of work along the lines of mathematics, natural sciences, history, literature, and the social sciences would be more thoughtfully considered. It is a universally accepted principle, that the daily work of each pupil should be along the various lines as suggested. Why not observe it more closely?

4th. The work done in one school may then be accepted by the authorities of another. Pupils going from one school may more readily adjust themselves to the work on entering a new school.

5th. Extraneous matter may be cut out. In many courses is found work not properly belonging in a high school course. A study found in only three, five, or seven schools in a total of sixty-five, cannot properly belong in the ideal course.

6th. General history, civil government, physics, zoölogy, would be required studies in all schools using the ideal course. Such is not the case in all of our better high schools to-day.

7th. The term "High School" would then mean something. To-day, in many cases it is a misnomer, being applied to any grade of school above the intermediate grade. In the city of A., arithmetic and grammar are pursued for three years of the four in the alleged high school course, while in that of the city of B., all the 'ologies embraced in a first-class Western University course find a place. Pupils should neither hunger for food, nor should their mental stomachs become cloyed.

8th. Comparative work may then be done with a greater degree of satisfaction, hence better results accrue.

9th. "In the multitude of counsellors there is wisdom." An ideal course would prove of value to every manager of a high school in this great state.

Among the apparent difficulties in the way, may be:

1st. The personalities of the various school superintendents and boards of education. It has been aptly said by one of our number, "Each community will have the kind of school it wishes."

2d. The varying needs and conditions, financial, commercial, and social of the communities.

3d. The lack of coöperation upon the part of school principals concerning the matter.

4th. The difficulties attendant upon making radical changes in the plans of work in the schools incidental to the introduction of a new course. These, however, are only apparent difficulties and may be overcome by patient perseverance.

The high school should fit pupils thoroughly for higher institutions and ordinary vocations. To do this satisfactorily is impossible without unification and consolidation of high school courses of study, and at the present time no problem in secondary education is more pressing.

COMMUNICATIONS.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY: —

The recent article of Dr. R. C. MacDonald on the Insanity of Hamlet unquestionably reaches the core of the perennial debate, and furnishes the only rational solution. But does not the author too easily concede the theory of pretence and thus exaggerate its importance?

Hamlet did, it must be admitted, sometimes make use of his reputation for insanity, and take pains to foment that opinion; but some of the arguments used to prove even this mild theory of simulation are open to criticism. Let us examine one — the pivotal one, the one which even to Dr. MacDonald's mind seems incontestable. I refer to the lines in Act I., Scene V.: —

> "How strange or odd soe'er I bear myself —
> As I perchance hereafter shall think meet
> To put an antick disposition on —."

We are told in the article mentioned that Hamlet had not at that time conceived the idea of feigning madness, that he was already on the verge of insanity, that Horatio, expressing the common belief of the time, had cautioned Hamlet against crossing the path of the ghost lest he lose his sovereignty of reason and be drawn on to madness. It is equally manifest that the time between the disappearance of the ghost and the conference of Hamlet with his friends was far too brief for deliberation; and that he was in no state of mind for forming plans, even if his resolution were not constitutionally "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought." That the prince's mind has grown calmer and enables him to form his plan on the instant is very doubtful when we consider the "wild and whirling words" in which he addresses his revered father's spirit in the swearing scene immediately following — "boy," "truepenny," and "old mole." Any interpretation of the passage must reconcile all these considerations. Hamlet is touched by the sympathetic, friendly way in which Horatio receives his hardly cordial hint to depart, and is led by this revulsion of feeling to confide the fact that it was an

"honest ghost," and that its appearance was significant of much offence. Having gone so far, he must enjoin secrecy. In doing this he must assign some reason. He recalls Horatio's words of warning. He feels his reason tottering as he did when he said a few minutes before—

> "Remember thee!
> Aye, thou poor Ghost, while memory holds a seat
> In this *distracted* globe."

Conscious of this distraction, he anticipates that he will appear strange and odd at times, and with the cunning concealment characteristic of insanity as to its own states, he feigns to see fit to "put on" what he feels is inevitable. Such a feeling and such methods are extremely common with the insane.

Not to examine in detail the assertions of Hamlet that he is not mad, it may be said that, like most insane persons, he never denies his madness except in times of great excitement: i. e., when he is most insane. His confessions of insanity, on the contrary, are often in his calmest moments, once to Laertes, as our author shows, when he felt that he was probably on the verge of the grave — when he said, Act V., Scene II., —

> "But thou wouldst not think how ill all 's here about my heart,"

and,—

> "We defy augury; * * * If it be now 't is not to come," etc.

Hamlet *was* insane and pretending insanity, but the pretence is a very slight element in the play compared with the real insanity.

BRADFORD O. MCINTIRE.

Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY:—

Dear Sir: Your February number contains a vigorous and somewhat lengthy communication from Mr. Thurber, the purport of which may be inferred from these two sentences: "The paper of Mr. Grandgent on *The Teaching of French and German in Our Public High Schools* should not discourage teachers from doing their best in the practice of conversation in the foreign language. * * * It is a pity that a willingness should be expressed in a high and influential quarter to surrender one part of the field of operations as untenable." Now, as my paper has not yet been pub-

lished in full, and as a large part of Mr. Thurber's letter conveys the impression that I said exactly the opposite of what I really did say, perhaps it is only fair that I should quote the language I actually used in speaking of this subject. The problem that I was trying to solve is this: given, our present corps of teachers, classes of the size and quality of those we now have, and the limitations of time to which we are subjected, what is the best use we can make of our modern language hours? After speaking of the very small amount of oral practice that would fall to the lot of each pupil, even if we devoted every moment of our time to talking, I said: "By all this I do not, in the least, intend to discourage the use of a foreign language in the class-room: my only purpose is to show that we cannot make speaking our chief aim, and that we must accept this fact once for all, and shape our methods accordingly. If, however, so-called 'conversation' ought not to be regarded as an end in itself, it is certainly a most valuable auxiliary. There are at least four reasons why we should cultivate it: in the first place, it satisfies a frequently expressed desire on the part of the public, and as the public supports the schools, its wishes should be heeded; secondly, classes do not correctly appreciate what they read (especially if their text is either metrical in form or colloquial in style), unless they know how it sounds; thirdly, the actual use of the foreign tongue invariably interests the pupils, giving them a sense of mastery that nothing else can bring; and, lastly, exercises of this kind stimulate the teacher to more extended study and greater mental activity." Do these words imply a "willingness to surrender one part of the field of operations as untenable"?

Faithfully yours,

C. H. Grandgent.

Cambridge, Feb. 20, 1892.

NOTES.

It is with real regret that we look forward to the retirement of Judge Draper from the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction in the State of New York. Of course, when the full result of the state election last fall was known, it was generally foreseen that Mr. Draper could not be reappointed. Nevertheless, earnest efforts were made to ward off the inevitable. They have served to emphasize the general esteem in which the present incumbent is held, without, however, in any degree affecting the final result. It must have been doubly gratifying to Mr. Draper to know that in many cases these efforts were made by the same persons who six years ago protested most strenuously against his appointment.

We have no intention of pre-judging the superintendent elect. Whatever he has or has not done in the past can easily be forgotten, provided he can by his actions justify the wisdom of his appointment. It is only fair to say, however, that he will be judged by very different standards from those which prevailed six years ago. The present incumbent has so raised the ideal that an administration which half a decade ago might have passed without special adverse comment, will now receive nothing but satisfaction at the present time. Superintendent Draper has set the pace during that time and has advanced [illegible] years ago, but each year with increasing [illegible]. His successor will have to submit himself for [illegible] and administrate in his own [illegible] peers in other states. [illegible] he must be, either [illegible] the state which he [illegible]

[illegible] difficult for one entirely [illegible] to speak without [illegible] to an outsider to pre- [illegible] and impartial [illegible] the State of [illegible] and its judicial [illegible] command respect.

But up to a recent period it has never furnished any particular inspiration or help to the teachers. Spread-eagle speeches on the importance of education have been delivered, the general vocation of teacher has been sufficiently lauded, the state moneys have been equitably divided according to the reports received, and the Department book-keeping has been creditably done. But that a Superintendent should be a vital force, influencing the whole educational system of the state, and penetrating each remote country district, no one ever expected. The unexpected, however, has at last happened, and with our own eyes we have seen it. There has been in Mr. Draper's administration a minimum of theoretical psychology and pedagogy and a maximum of practical common sense. He may or may not have had a full appreciation of all the heights of philosophy or of all the depths of learning that could be applied to the work of education, but he has had a very definite conception of the work nearest at hand, the thing that ought to be done first, and what he has had the mind to conceive he has had the energy and tact in a large degree to accomplish. Other eyes may see farther into the possibilities of the future, but none have seen more clearly the opportunities of the present. His administration has been marked by good sense, good temper, and actual accomplishment.

We easily go back in memory to the time, six years ago, when so many teachers felt and expressed their regret that the office of State Superintendent had gone not to a trained professional teacher, but to an outsider, unfamiliar with the traditions of education and unpracticed in all the various shibboleths of progress. The result as we have watched it, month by month, during these six years, has been a very gratifying disappointment. The unprofessional view of any subject is often an extremely valuable one. During many years of experimental knowledge of boards of supervision, whether under the name of school committee, trustees, or whatnot, we have come to regard more and more highly the unprofessional man who makes no claim to special knowledge, but who brings to bear on all questions of administration the clear light of common sense. He comes likes a breath of fresh air into an overheated room, he starts new currents of thought and adds vigor and force, without which learning and theory are alike useless. He has no theories to prove or disprove, but looks for certain definite results and sets down as a failure any man, no matter what his theories, who gets nowhere. We were ourselves, six years ago, of the number who would unques-

tioningly have preferred another man to Mr. Draper. It is no humiliation for us to confess that we think we are wiser now than we were then. Were our readers less familiar with Shakespeare than they are, we would follow Daniel Webster's example and quote a well-known passage from Hamlet.

THE classification of the Indian Service will go into effect March 1, 1892. On and after that date positions in that service can be obtained only after examination by the Civil Service Commission. There will be five grades of examination, viz.: Physician, superintendent, assistant superintendent, teacher, and matron. The salaries of physicians are from $1,000 to $1,200 a year, superintendents, $1,200 to $2,000, assistant superintendents, $1,000 to $1,500, teachers, $720 to $1,200, and matrons, $500 to $720. Persons desiring to enter the service in any of the grades named, are required to file applications on blanks which can be obtained without cost by writing to the U. S. Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C. With every application blank there will be sent a pamphlet showing when and where examinations may be taken, giving the list of subjects of the examinations and containing other information. Although the Commission has been giving these examinations for the past six months, so far the supply of eligibles is not equal to the demand.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Allerhand Sprachdummheiten. Kleine deutsche Grammatik des Zweifelhaften, des Falschen und des Hässlichen. Von Dr. Gustav Wustmann. Leipzig: 1891.

In aim and temper Dr. Wustmann reminds us of Mr. Washington Moon and of the late Richard Grant White. But though those critics and censors of English usage were in their day pungent, they yield in vivacity of style and in vigor of denunciation to the German who here undertakes to purge his mother tongue of current absurdities. Dr. Wustmann writes on style and diction with a style

and diction of his own that are not only exemplary in correctness, but marvellous in lightness, fluency and rapidity. Whoever has found German heavy and involved, should dip into Dr. Wustmann and find it free, facile and clear. No French or Italian could be brighter or simpler. With what kind of pen or type-writing machine one could possibly write so fast as these sentences go is inconceivable. And Dr. Wustmann is a German official! He is "*Stadtbibliothekar und Direktor des Ratsarchivs in Leipzig*"! With all this title he is the most zealous foe of pompous officialism in language. Even if we found his matter dry, we should surrender to the animation and transparency of his German, to enjoy the sensation of German word and phrase moving so briskly and so securely.

But we do not find his matter dry. This is the most interesting book on modern German that we have for many years taken in hand. It casts utterly into the shade Sanders's *Wörterbuch der Hauptschwierigkeiten*. It refreshes our *Sprachgefühl* for German idiom. To a teacher of German the book should be of the very first importance. Where the grammars proper leave off and leave the student at the mercy of usage, this work will come as a further guide. The author by no means contents himself with putting error and correction in juxtaposition: he expounds and explains, gives his reasons, leaves his reader convinced and enlightened. Of bad usage he gives examples in abundance: if we read current German, we have seen just such cases, and we recognize them sometimes as forms we might have used on occasion, in our innocent belief that everything printed must be idiomatic.

Dr. Wustmann breaks his work into 148 sections bearing titles that clearly announce the matter to be treated, but with the least possible formality of arrangement. These titles are gathered into a sufficient table of contents at the end of the book. In no respect, so far as we can think, could the form of the book be made more serviceable.

Very amusing is the author's perpetually recurring use of the expressions *paper men*, *paper style*, *paper words*. The relative *welcher* is a paper word. But three times in weeks did he hear it in spoken speech, and for each of these rare phenomena he succeeds in accounting. He would have the word banished from written language also. Though this is not our quarrel, we are highly interested spectators, and we rejoice to see those horrid German

conjunctions, *resp.* and *bezw.*, duly consigned to the limbo of vanities. It took us years of our lost youth to learn to substitute a simple *oder* for these unwieldy hippopotamus affairs. Yet we never dared to speak out till now. Were Dr. Wustmann a mere *Oberlehrer*, we might still remain timid: but considering his titles, we place ourselves behind his aegis, and herewith do curse those enormities, *resp.* and *bezw.*

There is not one of Dr. Wustmann's sections that is not interesting. We may specify, however, a few:— *das Dativ-e*, *das s der Mehrzahl*, *man*, *jemand anders*, *Indikativ und Konjunktiv*, *der unerkennbare Konjunktiv*, *die consecutio temporum*, *würde*, *voller Menschen*, *zur Interpunktion*.

It happens occasionally that a discussion of German usage is also a discussion of English, or even of general, usage. As instances of chapters that have this additional title to our regard, may be cited those on *einer der schwierigsten*, *die oder der*, and *der falsche fortgesetzte Relativsatz*. These are spooks familiar to every corrector of juvenile English and to every reader of newspapers.

Many of the offensive and correctible malformations which Dr. Wustmann finds in current German seem to us to grow out of the tendency of the language to throw away inflections. The conservative sticks to his paradigms. But in a modern language a load of paradigms is bad lumber, and no matter how much the scholars encourage the common people to bear up under it, the common people will, little by little, throw it off. The common people make the language. Scholars observe what the people say and write, and assume to lay down rules for the people to follow. But the language develops, sloughs off useless appendages, forgets its old fashions, familiarizes itself with novelty. One whose taste has been formed on old models is shocked at innovations, and utters his disgust in confident assertions that the new forms violate the fundamental and eternal laws of the language. This is the besetting sin of linguistic censors. The fact that English thrives with mere ghosts of paradigms is coming to be perceived by foreigners, who are thus led to look askance upon their inflectional baggage, and to query if so much change of word-ending is worth what its costs.

Such a book as this is evidently timely in Germany: no less timely would be a similar one in America and England. To be sure, there comes a time with regard to changes in speech when the conservative champion has to acknowledge himself defeated, and to

yield with what grace he can to usage that has become general and has lost all consciousness of evil. The schoolmaster who, though vanquished, can argue still, is, perhaps, just a little too much abroad in the field of rhetorical criticism. It is well to know when one is belated, that one may hurry up and fight with real evils in the front. Rhetoricians still insisting on the impossible are not a lovely sight. Still, the conservatism of the schoolmaster and the professor is, on the whole, a valuable influence on our language, and certain bad tendencies may, undoubtedly, be checked by such vigorous efforts as that which Dr. Wustmann makes in his *Sprachdummheiten*.

Short Studies in Literature. By Hamilton Wright Mabie. New York: 1891.

Books about books are coming to be so numerous that the student of literature is in some danger of contenting himself with succedaneous information about his subject while he ought to be enlarging his knowledge of literature itself. The habit of reading criticism and exposition is simply debilitating. Second-hand opinions are wore than ignorance. One resorts to Dante or Goethe from primal and legitimate motives: secondarily, one resorts to the expounders when one has come to feel the need of help and has questions shaped in his mind to which he seeks an answer. Discussions of literature contemplate a public that has already done a good deal of reading; and the public that has read largely for itself will naturally be nice in its choice of instructors.

Fully possessed by these convictions as to the general value of the literary essays now so much in vogue, we confess we have read Mr. Mabie's book with profit, and we are ready to commend it without reserve to our fellow teachers of literature. For Mr. Mabie defends with wisdom and insight a cause which we have very much at heart. He says: "It is the opportunity of most people to read many books; it might be the good fortune of many to study literature; to read books, that is, not as unrelated fragments, but as the illustrations of the greatest of the arts; the art through which the soul of man reveals itself under all historic conditions."

Mr. Mabie's work aims, therefore, to help the reader of many books to find the principles of unity that link together the multifarious phenomena of literature. Great readers are not necessarily careful students. To have read long and busily should imply much

comparison of writers, and should eventuate in perception of the gradual development of human thought. The books on one's list may well be few, provided these few have been well chosen and have been studied with reference to their interrelationship. We are too apt to speak of literature as a mere collective expression for all books, or for all important and memorable books. But as he who possesses some thousands of bricks does not necessarily own a house, so he who has read a library through may yet have mere chaos in his mind and possess no literature. Multifarious reading is now-a-days common enough. Public libraries study the mechanics of giving out books and getting them safely back, but have not yet conceived the function of organizing reading and giving it purpose and aim. Our schools also are almost equally primitive and rude in their dealings with books. But recently we saw colleges and schools combine their wisdom to plan English reading for youth. It is characteristic of the belatedness of our ideas with regard to literature that the result of this conference should be so generally vaunted as an immense gain to secondary education. Nothing better was accomplished than an agreement between a number of colleges to require the reading of the same books, chapters, poems or plays. To make selections that should adjust themselves to historical treatment of the subject seems never to have occurred to the consulting powers. Only the convenience of examinations seems to have been taken into the consideration. The examination pressure had usurped the entire pedagogic consciousness: we thought we had achieved great things when we agreed to examine upon the same fragments.

The main purpose of Mr. Mabie's book is to combat the notion that books are isolated phenomena, without ancestry or posterity. The great influences that run through literature, and determine alike form and substance of the individual works, he aims to trace, or, at least, to suggest. His view embraces all the great productions of all the culture nations. Information about books he does not undertake to give. No more does he offer us criticism of authors and try to set forth excellences and defects. He has evidently read and pondered with the result of attaining a certain insight into the significance of periods and writers, and having matured his conclusions by due meditation and comparison, he here lays them before all who would undertake the study of literature as a serious business. Mr. Mabie's style is compact and sparkling. His sound

philosophy he sets forth clearly without wearying his reader with verbiage. We deem that we commend the book when we say that it contains 200 pages, divided into forty chapters.

Inorganic Chemistry. Theoretical and Practical. A manual for students in advanced classes by William Jago, F. C. S., F. I. C. London: Longmans, Green & Co., and New York. 1890.

The students series of Latin classics. Sir Walter Scott's *Marmion.* Edited by Mary Harriott Norris, Instructor in English Literature, editor of George Eliot's Silas Marner, author of Phebe, Dorothy Dalafield, etc. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, Boston and New York.

Exercises in Greek Prose Composition, by F. E. Woodruff, A.M., Professor of Greek in Bowdoin College. Based upon the Anabasis, Books, I.-III. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn, Boston and New York.

Mechanics for Beginners. Part I. Dynamics and Statics. By the Rev. J. B. Lock, M. A., Fellow and Bursar of Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. 1891.

Classical Series. The *Captivi* of T. Maccius Plautus. With introduction and notes, by Archibald R. S. Hallidie, M. A., formerly Junior Student of Christ Church, Oxford. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York.

Golden Treasury Series. *Balladen und Romanzen.* Selected and arranged with notes and literary introduction by C. A. Buchheim, Ph. D., Professor of German Literature in King's College, London. Editor of the Deutsche Lyrik, etc. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. 1891.

Selected Fragments of Roman Poetry from the earliest times of the Republic to the Augustan Age. Edited with introductions and notes by W. W. Merry, D.D. Rector of Lincoln College, Oxford. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1891.

Clarendon Press Series. *Le Misanthrope.* A Comedy by Molière, acted for the first time at Paris at the Theatre of the Palais Royal on Friday, the fourth of June, 1666. Edited with introduction and notes by H. W. Gegg Markheim, M. A., Fellow of Queen's College, Oxford. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1891.

A School Atlas of English History, edited by Samuel Rawson Gardiner, M. A., LL.D. A companion atlas to the "Student's History of England" by Samuel Rawson Gardiner. London: Longmans, Green & Co., and New York, 15 East 16th Street. 1891.

Progressive Mathematical Exercises for Home Work. First series. By A. T. Richardson, M. A. Senior Mathematic Master at the Isle of Wight College. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. 1891.

A First Book of Electricity and Magnetism, for the use of elementary science and art and engineering students and general readers. By W. Perren Maycock, M. Inst. E. E., with original questions, list of apparatus, and complete index. Ruled pages for notes. With eighty-four illustrations. London: Whittaker & Co., 2 White Hart Street. New York: Macmillan & Co.

A Treatise on the Geometry of the Circle and some extensions to Conic Sections by the Method of Reciprocation, with numerous examples. By William J. M'Clelland, M. A., Principal of the Incorporated Society's School, Santry, Dublin. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York. 1891.

Masterpieces of American Literature. Franklin: Irving: Bryant: Webster: Everett: Longfellow: Hawthorne: Whittier: Emerson: Holmes: Lowell: Thoreau: O'Reilly. With biographical sketches. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The Riverside Press, Cambridge. 1891.

The Riverside Literature Series: *The Voyage and other English Essays from the Sketch-Book*. By Washington Irving. Also:
Rip Van Winkle and other American Essays from the Sketch-Book. By Washington Irving. Houghton, Mifflin & Co, Boston and New York. The Riverside Press, Cambridge. 1891.

Studies in American History. By Mary Sheldon Barnes, A. B., formerly Professor of History in Wellesley College, and Teacher of History in Oswego Normal School, N. Y., author of Sheldon's "Studies in General History," and Earl Barnes, M. S., Professor of the History and Art of Education in the Leland Stanford Junior University; formerly Professor of History in the University of Indiana. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1891.

Manual of Plane Geometry, on the heuristic plan, with numerous extra exercises, both theorems and problems, for advance work. By G. Irving Hopkins, Instructor in Mathematics and Physics in High School, Manchester, N. H. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1891.

Number Lessons. A book for second and third year pupils. By Charles E. White, Principal Franklin School, Syracuse, N. Y. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 1892.

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THE ACADEMY:

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THE ACADEMY:

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF HIGH SCHOOLS ACADEMIES AND ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS

VOL. VII APRIL 1892 NO. 3

THE SCIENTIFIC METHOD IN ENGLISH LITERATURE TEACHING.

J. M. HART, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

We are living in an age of science. Our atmosphere is surcharged with the problems of chemical affinity, of electro-dynamics, of biological evolution, and of the solar universe in general. Those of us whose studies lie in another direction, who deal with the phenomena of human character in its historic continuity, know full well — without especial reminder — that it yearly becomes harder to get a hearing from this onrushing materialistic generation.

For this we ourselves are to blame, in good part. We overlook or ignore the fact that all teaching is fundamentally an intellectual process and should aim at practical and measurable results. The teaching of literature, if it is to be effective with young men and young women continually subjected to scientific influences, must be scientific also, at least must be in touch with the scientific method. To teach literature merely æsthetically or dogmatically is, in these our times, to expose it to neglect or to impatient contempt. We are to learn how to meet successfully Professor Freeman's home thrust: "English literature is only chatter about Shelley."

1. Is English literature worth studying? Varying the question, can it be taught with something like scientific exactness and measurable results? Or are our literary conceptions as vague and floating

as our tastes? Without going to the absurd length of asserting that a literary definition or interpretation can ever have the precision of an algebraic equation or a chemical analysis or an anatomical dissection, I venture to belive that the more of mathematical, chemical, anatomical exactness we may enforce in the study of literature, the greater will become its pedagogic value. It is not our function as teachers of literature to make a writing beautiful; that is the business of the writer. We merely interpret; that is, we remove any obstacles that may exist between writer and reader, and on the other hand we lay bare the nexus of the writer with his times, showing how much he borrowed, how much he repaid. These are things that admit of systematic treatment.

To recur then to the question: Is English literature worth studying in college, that is, is it needful to appoint special professors, offer special facilities, and make an ample allowance of time? Or, on the contrary, may the study be left to individual taste and fancy, unaided, unguided? In plainer language, may not each student read for himself?

On this point I offer a single expression of opinion, couched in the form of a regret:

"I have said that in one respect my mind has changed during the last twenty or thirty years. Up to the age of thirty, or beyond it, poetry of many kinds, such as the works of Milton, Gray, Byron, Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Shelley, gave me great pleasure, and even as a schoolboy I took intense delight in Shakespeare, especially in the historical plays. I have also said that formerly pictures gave me considerable, and music very great delight. But now for many years I cannot endure to read a line of poetry; I have tried lately to read Shakespeare and found it so intolerably dull that it nauseated me. I have also almost lost my taste for pictures and music. Music generally sets me thinking too energetically on what I have been at work on, instead of giving me pleasure. I retain some taste for fine scenery, but it does not cause me the exquisite delight which it formerly did. On the other hand novels which are works of the imagination, though not of a very high order, have been for years a wonderful relief and pleasure to me, and I often bless all novelists. A surprising number have been read aloud to me, and I like all if moderately good, and if they do not end unhappily,—against which a law ought to be passed. A novel, according to my taste, does not come into the first-class unless it contains some person whom one can thorougly love, and if a pretty woman, all the better.

"This curious and lamentable loss of the higher æsthetic taste is all the odder as books on history, biographies, and travels (independently of any scientific facts which they may contain), and essays on all sorts of subjects interest me as much as ever they did. My mind seems to have become a kind of machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts. But why this should have caused the atrophy of that part of the brain alone on which the higher tastes depend, I cannot conceive. A man with a mind more highly organized or better constituted than mine, would not, I suppose, have thus suffered; and if I had to live my life again, I would have made a rule to read some poetry and listen to some music at least once every week: for perhaps the parts of my brain now atrophied would thus have been kept active through use. The loss of these tastes is a loss of happiness, and may possibly be injurious to the intellect, and more probably to the moral character, by enfeebling the emotional part of our nature."

The writer of this singular confession is no ordinary man, no retired lawyer, statesman, manufacturer, soured perhaps with the suspicion that his life had not been wisely spent or had fallen short of the highest success. His name is known to every one. It is synonymous with the highest success that man can achieve in his vocation. His eye is too clear to see anything in a false light, his judgment is too just to judge even himself unfairly. The autobiographer is Charles Darwin.*

No less a person, then, than the founder of the science of evolution had cause to complain of atrophy of the æsthetic sense, with an attendant and proportional diminution of intellectual force. Yet, by his own statement, he was in his younger years fond of reading and read perhaps a fair amount of English classics. But he read, as some would have us let all our young men and women read, merely according to his own fancy. He was not taught to compare, discriminate, and judge, his eyes were not opened to the more intellectual aspects of literature, to the possibility of converting the casual perusal of books into a mental discipline, the method and formulas of which might remain long after the mere charm of novelty had vanished.

2. What is meant by the study of English literature? The question, one might say, answers itself. Yet, simple as it is, it has long

* *The Life and Letters of Charles Darwin.* New York: Appleton, 1887. Vol. I. p. 81.

been and still is, under a haze, through confusion with another and very different matter, namely training in English composition. That the two are confounded, even by professional educators, is evident from the most casual inspection of the workings of the so-called New England College programme. Those who have read the report of the memorable debate of 1887–8 will remember how active was the discussion of English requirements in the Commission upon Admission. It was indeed practically the exclusive topic of debate, and the speakers were such men as F. A. Hill, A. S. Hill, C. F. B. Bancroft, T. W. Bancroft, Keep, Genung, Winchester. It would be impossible to get together a more representative body. The result of the labors of the Commission is well known. All the New England colleges, and also Cornell, now require an entrance examination in English upon the same prescribed books. The books vary slightly from year to year, the arrangement for each year being announced several years in advance. For 1892 this is the list: Julius Cæsar, As You Like It; Marmion; Courtship of Miles Standish; Sir Roger de Coverley Papers; Macaulay's Second Essay on Chatham; Webster's First Bunker Hill Oration; Alhambra; Talisman; House of Seven Gables; George Eliot's Scenes from Clerical Life.

Such a list of authors and books is unimpeachable. But how is the reading of them tested? Not with a view to ascertaining if the candidate has gained an insight into the literary status of Shakespeare, Scott, Hawthorne, and the others, but solely to make sure that he remembers enough to write a composition. Thus the examination "set" at Harvard in 1887 was:

"Write a composition, with especial attention to clearness of arrangement, accuracy of expression, and quality rather than quantity of matter, on one of the following subjects:—

1. An outline of the story of Quentin Durward.
2. The escape of Isabelle of Croye from the Castle Hall of Schönwald.
3. How Quentin Durward outwitted the Bohemian Hayraddin.
4. The character of Louis XI. as represented by Scott.
5. The meeting of Louis XI. and the Duke of Burgundy at Peronne.
6. A glimpse of William de la Marck, the Boar of Ardennes.

This, with the correction of about twenty sentences of faulty structure, was deemed enough for admission to our oldest and most distinctively literary college. Here I must give the most positive assurance that I am far from wishing to cast any slur upon Harvard. It is well known to me that the average Harvard under-graduate is better read than his fellow in any other of our colleges. Besides, I should not dare to fling stones, living myself in a glass house. Cornell requires no more for admission than Harvard requires. And, as professor of rhetoric, I am bound to say that for the rhetorical department the requirement, if thoroughly enforced, is sufficient. But could I say the same, were I professor of English literature?

Does the New England examination afford the slightest guaranty that the matriculant is qualified for the college study of English literature? It would be easy to draw up a few questions upon books read for preparation in French and German, questions that would test the composition-powers quite as effectively. Thus:

1. The character of la petite Fadette.
2. The character of Veitel Itzig.
3. The interview between Alva and Egmont.

George Sand is no whit inferior to George Eliot, Freytag as a novelist is quite the equal of Scott, Goethe is infinitely his superior in character-delineation. The scenes in the French and German stories are no more remote from England than those in Quentin Durward.

It is one thing to ask a candidate what he knows of one of Scott's novels. It is another to ask him what he knows of Scott. Thus:

1. Mention three stages in Scott's authorship.
2. Give a sketch of his many-sided literary activity.
3. Wherein is his poetry inferior to his prose?
4. Discuss some features in his character and acts in his life that may be accounted for by reference to his surroundings and the temper of the times.

These questions are not profound; they should be answered readily by any one who has read Hutton's *Life of Scott*, a much shorter book than Quentin Durward and full as easy of comprehension. For my own part, I would infinitely rather hear from a candidate how Scott struggled heroically to satisfy his creditors than how Quentin outwitted Hayraddin.

The study of literature, like every other study, involves three processes: an accumulation of facts, a mastery of method (akin to what the artist calls *Technik*), and an insight into and application of principles. Viewed from this point the selection of books on the New England programme is open to grave criticism. Although each book is good in itself as a model of English style, I do not believe that the collection affords an adequate survey of the growth of our literature. It is too incoherent. Furthermore the programme does not call for any study of the history of the literature, nor does it even postulate — in form at least — any systematic school-teaching. Some of the better schools, it is true, give direct instruction, but very many do not, and even in those that do give it there does not seem to be uniformity of method. It is a pertinent question, therefore, how far the college professor of English literature has reason to complain of the present arrangement. Has he a right to assume that his beginning classes have any knowledge of the broader facts of the literature, of the grouping of authors, of the parallelism between literary and political history? Is he not rather under the necessity of going to the very foundation of things? And after he has succeeded in laying a tolerable foundation, how much time has he left for advanced study? Judging from my own experience of fourteen years in Cincinnati, I can safely say that at least half of the professor's time is spent in teaching matters that ought to be taught in every high school.

3. What should be the high school course in English literature? I hold that two exercises a week throughout the four years should be the minimum required of every pupil: these exercises to be purely literary, that is, wholly distinct from the rhetorical exercises (composition), although of course they may and should be utilized in the composition classes. This amount of time may appear at first excessive. But there are several general considerations that will make it appear quite reasonable.

In the first place only a small percentage of high-school pupils enter college. For the great majority, seventy or eighty per cent, the high school is final, so far at least as general training is concerned. It is certainly the only place where eighty out of the hundred can lay the foundations of literary knowledge and acquire the taste for substantial reading. In the next place our entire system of education is in danger from over-specialization. We are turning out too many narrow specialists, too few liberally trained thinkers.

Our college students in science, for instance, are in such haste to become chemists, physicists, doctors of medicine, that they content themselves with a bare "pass" in French and German, although they can scarcely help knowing that a thorough knowledge of these languages is indispensable to the highest success. The seeds of this evil are sown in the high school, and in the high school accordingly they are to be eradicated or at least made innocuous. In a country such as ours many concessions must be made to public opinion. But it is high time to inform even the American public that certain things are founded in nature, and are therefore inexorable and not to be abrogated by popular vote.

Education has its *laws*, and one of them is the law of *coherence*. Every institution of learning, whether school or college, must be coherent; otherwise it is no organism, only an aggregate of particles. The only sure method of securing this cohesion in a school consists in the requiring certain studies of all pupils throughout the entire course. What these studies should be, what proportion they should bear to special studies, are questions beyond the scope of the present paper. It will be enough for my purpose if English literature be admitted to rank among the "coherent" studies. Has it any superior? No other study is so humanizing, so well fitted to become a bond of union, so likely to abide by the pupil in after-life. As men and women we may forget our classics, our mathematics, or our science, in the wear and tear of our respective professions, and still remain heart-whole. But if we have no literature to fall back upon, we are on the way to an "atrophied" old age.

Darwin has given us the benefit of his experience. Let me present another and very different picture. Some years ago a celebrated German professor, almost as celebrated in his line as Darwin, retired loaded down with honors and titles. In writing to one of his former pupils, professor in an American college, he said: "I work very little, almost not at all, in chemistry. I feel that my life-work in science, for better or for worse, is done. So I pass my time in re-reading the grand old German classics, Goethe and Schiller. How they make me young again!"

Whatever be our estimate of the German *Gymnasium* and *Realschule*, in one feature certainly they are noble models. They give their pupils a training in native literature the like of which it would be idle to seek elsewhere. And thorough as it is already, the tendency is to improve it still more, partly by increasing the time given to it, partly by raising the standard of qualification in the instructor.

The need of literary training is greater in America than in Germany. Germany is an old country, its culture is widely diffused. The number of families that possess by inheritance libraries and the taste for reading is greater than with us. Besides, the German people is homogenous; whereas we Americans are taxing our energies to the utmost in the endless task of assimilating annually half a million immigrants of the lower and lowest classes, differing from us in language and nationality, ignorant of Anglo-American institutions and — still worse — ignorant of the spirit underlying those institutions. The immigrants themselves will remain in substance as they came, although the foreign stamp may partially wear off in time. But are the children to be suffered to grow up foreign to the soil? How they grow up is only too evident to every one who knows the poorer suburbs of our larger cities. Here one may listen to a speech that is anything but English, bristling with slang and bad grammar, absolutely devoid of the first divine spark of the ideal. All is material, sordid, vulgar.

Now our high schools do not reach the masses directly. But they affect them indirectly through the lower schools. The more elevated the tone and standard of the high schools, the more pervasive will be the influence on those below them. What inducement have the grammar and district schools to set a proper value upon [illegible] so long as they see that it is not in the high schools a [illegible]? At the other extreme, how can the college [illegible] as long as he is required to [illegible] scholars who have never read a line of Shakespeare or a Milton who do not know the difference between [illegible] who must be informed in college that Tennyson's Queen Mary is not the same person as Swinburne's Mary Stuart.

[illegible] the high school course as it might be. We may [illegible] Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Goldsmith, Gray, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Byron, Tennyson, Browning, Ruskin, Longfellow, Whittier, Lowell, for instance; Bacon, Milton, Addison, Swift, [illegible] Macaulay, Carlyle, [illegible] Emerson, [illegible] Irving, [illegible] Prescott, Motley, [illegible] Parkman, [illegible] Lincoln, [illegible] Webster, [illegible] Hamilton, [illegible] Franklin, [illegible] Jefferson, [illegible] Washington, [illegible] Marshall, [illegible] Calhoun, [illegible] Clay, [illegible] Adams, [illegible] Lincoln, [illegible] Grant, [illegible] Sherman, [illegible] Sheridan, [illegible] Lee, [illegible] Jackson, [illegible] Farragut

general history of the literature by periods. It is highly desirable, not to say imperative, that the pupil should learn to group historical and social events around great literary names and thus associate each writer with the general life of the nation.

At present there is no text-book of literary history suited to school needs. All our so-called manuals err either through excessive dryness, giving little more than names and dates, or through excessive vagueness, giving too many glittering generalities upon style. There should be a manual defining the successive stages of our literature, the characteristics of each, the political, social, and religious influences, native *and foreign*, moulding the individual writer and his set, and also indicating the steps by which one generation or school succeeded its immediate predecessor. All this and perhaps more could be effected with four hundred pages. The study of such a book, which might be a companion volume to the manual of political history, would remedy many evils. It would break up the *isolating* process, which treats each author as a being by himself without parent or offspring. It would teach the young how literature grows. It would even give them a glimpse of the relations between English literature and Continental. The whole secret of success lies in interesting the young in poetry and prose as the expression of genuine needs and ideals, in training them to grasp facts (not mere dates), and in pointing out the connection of events. In this way the significance of a literary master-piece can be brought within their reach.

4. How English literature should be taught in college is a question upon which I shall touch lightly. Having ceased to be a professor of literature in the strict sense, anything in the nature of a programme coming from me might seem to be an *obiter dictum*. Besides, is there need of a programme of literature in the college course? In most colleges that have the chair the incumbent may console himself with the reflection that if he has little material aid and support he has at least plenty of freedom. He is not tied down to a routine of authors and subjects. In this respect he is better off than his colleagues in the ancient and modern languages. Such freedom, if not abused, is not only right and proper but indeed the very soul of his work. Of all subjects literature is the one that tempts most to specialize. The field is immense, the questions are endlessly diversified, and there is no underlying logic, so to speak, that says: You must exhaust one period, one set of authors, before

taking up another. Whoever is reasonably familiar with the general drift of the literature may concentrate his energies upon one period and be all the better for the concentration. Were we gifted with the memory of Macaulay and the inquisitiveness of De Quincey, we should never know all the phases of English literature equally well. Most of us will be content if we know a little of it in its entirety and a good deal of it here and there.

The college instructor, then, will inevitably favor one period at the expense of others. That period, for reasons known only to himself, perhaps even unknown to him, will be more intelligible and appeal more strongly to him. In expounding it he will feel that his teaching is borne home with the force of his personality. Our Nestor in this line, Professor F. J. Child of Harvard, has rarely if ever gone outside of Chaucer and a very few of the great Elizabethan writers. His success in building up a school of criticism and interpretation is too eminent to need more than the bare mention. Yet, despite Professor Child's noble example of scholarly thoroughness in one part of the field, it seems to me a matter of regret that so few of our younger college instructors concern themselves with recent Victorian literature. This part of the field lies almost fallow; any one who enters upon it with sufficient training and a determined purpose will reap an abundant harvest.

The following remarks are offered as suggestions upon the method of teaching. The study has usually been conducted by way of recitation and examination upon manuals or dictated lectures. This seems to me not only faulty but unproductive of the one needful result, training of the critical faculty. How far the lecture-system may be expedient in science is not for the man of literature to say; but in literature it has always seemed to me a waste of time. What can a lecturer say that has not been said already, unless indeed he discourses upon topics beyond his hearers' range of information? Dates and other biographical facts may be gathered by the students for themselves from cyclopædias and many works of reference. To lecture *upon* an author is a poor substitute for reading him. Lectures can be helpful only

1. When they supplement or correct a book of reference.
2. When they summarize a subsidiary topic not sufficiently treated in books of reference.

The essence of literary study consists solely in learning how to confront an author. Every notable author, be he Milton or Tenny-

son, has a certain charm of his own and also offers peculiar difficulties. The charm we shall feel only by putting ourselves under his spell. We are to submit patiently, almost passively, to his guidance for a considerable length of time. The difficulties can be recognized and overcome only by taking them up persistently one by one as they occur. There is no highway to interpretation; not even an Aristotle or a Lessing could devise a manual of reading-canons.

The ideal college-room would be a literary work-shop. Like other work-shops it is to be furnished with tools, let us say with a library of a few hundred volumes carefully selected with regard to their usefulness for consultation, and accessible to the students at all times. The instruction will consist in training the apprentice in the use of these tools. As the professor of chemistry trains his apprentices in the use of test-tube and balance, so the professor of literature will teach his apprentices how to consult dictionaries, encyclopædias, biographies, histories, literary and political, gazetteers, historical atlases, how to trace every allusion to its historical bearings, to locate every place-name on the map, every person-name in its age and country. The professor of botany teaches his men how to dissect a plant and demonstrate its organs and cell-structure. In like manner the professor of literature will teach his men to dissect a drama, to lay bare its *motifs*, to determine whether the nexus between cause and effect is adequate, whether the characters and plot are self-consistent.

Dropping simile, I put the question as pointedly as possible: Does not the most practical method of teaching literature consist in showing the beginner how to use books? How to get information and how to bring it to bear upon a particular point? I take the liberty of submitting one or two illustrations selected from recent experience.

A class, we will say, has just begun Tennyson's *Harold*. In the *dramatis personae* the name of the wife of Edward the Confessor is not given. Nor is her name mentioned anywhere in the play.

Why this omission? The instructor can call upon the class to get the name from a text-book of history. It proves to be Edith. Recurring to the *dramatis personae* the class will see that the King's ward and Harold's love is named Edith. The point is a trifle, but it is one of those trifles that illustrate art-method. Tennyson, by a very simple device, has spared himself and his readers much tiresome explanation. The Queen being of minor importance, it is

enough to designate her by title merely. Furthermore the device illustrates the difference between the historian and the poet. The historian must give names, however inconvenient; the poet may ignore the merely formal side of history while yet keeping close to substantial facts, as Tennyson has done.

Another point occurs in the same play of *Harold*. In Act I., scene 1., Gurth swears by St. Olaf. Who was St. Olaf? By consulting an encyclopædia the class can learn that there was a noted king of Norway of that name, who led an eventful life and fell in battle 1030 A. D. Several doubts should immediately suggest themselves. When does Gurth utter the oath? King Edward, who is alive at the time, died in January, 1066. In the scene immediately following the oath Edith speaks of the nightingales singing. Consequently the oath cannot be uttered later than June, 1065. That is, Olaf Haraldson is treated as a well-known saint in England only thirty-five years after his death. Is this likely? Is it even likely that he was thus venerated (I do not speak of techinal *canonization*) in his own country at so early a date? Besides, Gurth is a representative of Wessex, i. e., of the specifically native element in England, and therefore not likely to invoke Olaf, a saint so representative of the Scandinavian element against which Wessex is struggling.

If we wish to proceed to criticism of a higher order, Tennyson's *Becket* will give us the opportunity. One of the English reviewers of the play justifies the introduction of the (fabulous) love-making between Henry and Rosamund on the plea that a modern dramatist cannot make his story interesting without use of the element of love. Passing this by as a question of taste which each reader must decide for himself, we encounter a far more serious — and in my judgment an insuperable — difficulty in the status of Rosamund herself. What is she? What role, *exactly*, does she play? The question is an apt illustration of the remarks made a few pages back upon the usefulness of an occasional lecture upon topics out of the student's reach. The best discussion of the general principles of dramatic art is to be found in Lessing's *Dramaturgie*. This book should be in the hands of every student of literature. But it is not a work that the college professor of English can, in the present state of affairs, demand of his class. At any rate he can give them the substance of Lessing's doctrine on certain points by means of a few lectures.

Among other things Lessing says, following Diderot, that in tragedy the dramatist can not be too explicit. He cannot inform the spectator too clearly concerning the *dramatis personae*. All mystification, intentional or not, all so-called intrigue, where the spectator is left in uncertainty as to the exact status of hero or heroine, is fatal. The reason is obvious. The aim of tragedy, according to Aristotle, is to purify the soul of the spectator through the emotions of sympathy and fear. This first element, sympathy, is the only one that concerns us here. It will explain itself to whoever will approach it fairly. There must be a human being like ourselves, with whom to sympathize; and that human being must be overtaken by some definite misfortune within the range of ordinary human experience. The misfortune must be *definite*, i. e., unmistakable. It may be the loss of life, of some dear one, of worldly honor. But whatever it may be, the dramatist has no right to leave us, the spectators, in uncertainty. We are to know *what* the loss is, we are to know it most *precisely*.

Yet in all that relates to Rosamund, Tennyson has violated this principle. We are made to understand throughout the play that she is, next to Becket, the object of our tenderest sympathy. On what ground? I have searched the drama most carefully for an answer, but in vain. Is Rosamund merely the King's mistress, yielding to him with her eyes open? Or is she an ingenuous maiden, tricked into dishonor through a sham marriage? The nature of our sympathy will vary radically according as she may occupy the one position or the other. Yet Tennyson has nowhere informed us unmistakably. In Act III., scene 1, Rosamund *seems* to learn for the first time that Henry and Eleanor are married. How is this possible? Rosamund is no ignorant dairy-maid; she is the daughter of an English baron and proud of her lineage. Were the barons of those days uninformed of their sovereign's marriage? On the other hand Eleanor *seems* to suspect that Rosamund may be after all Henry's lawful wife and she herself the dupe. How is this possible? Rosamund is so young that she is addressed as child. We are invited to sympathize with her as a child-mother of one very young boy, while Eleanor has borne to the king four sons, the eldest, Henry, old enough to be crowned king and act as his father's deputy; the second, Richard, old enough to warrant his mother's boast that he is likely to prove a greater man than his father. How can Eleanor, when she surprises Rosamund and addresses her as

"Child," admit for an instant that the "child" might have been married to the King before she, Eleanor, was married to him? I fear that Tennyson has only succeeded in mystifying us.

These comments upon an author not usually studied in college are offered here as suggesting an insight into the most general bearings of very recent literature. It will be a profitable day when Tennyson is studied after the fashion of Shakespeare and Sophocles.

Let us now revert to Charles Darwin's confession. Our great scientist complained of atrophy of the literary sense. That is not surprising. It does not appear that his literary sense was ever developed; in other words, that he was ever taught to interpret. Literature, it is true, like other arts, is a mode of enjoyment. But in order to enjoy thoroughly and permanently we must know why we enjoy. Otherwise we lower poetry to the level of the pleasures of the palate, a mere sensation without intelligence. Whereas literature proceeds from and appeals to the intelligence. It abounds, no less than science, in why's and wherefore's. Its abiding success depends upon an intelligent adjustment of means to ends on the part of the writer, and upon an appreciation of that adjustment on the part of the reader. This is quite independent of so-called "liking" for an author. To the student who objects that he does not "like" a certain author or work, there can be given only one answer:—You are not asked to like, but to understand. You are to work out these three problems: *a*. What has the writer set himself to accomplish? *b*. What means has he employed? *c*. How far, in your estimation, have the means accomplished the end? This is the real study of literature. Whatever lies outside of this is uncertain, incommensurable, can not be imparted, much less commanded.

Had Charles Darwin studied the vegetable kingdom solely from its obvious side, as a vast collection of graceful shapes and beautiful colors, might he not have tired of it? Whereas he bent all his energies to solving the "why" of the vegetable kingdom. Why should flowers differ in color and form, what did nature mean in evolving such endless variety? Or was she merely following æsthetic chance? Charles Darwin admitted no æsthetic chance in his garden. But he did, I fear, in his library. He would have smiled patiently upon any one who might have asked him whether the rose were not more beautiful than the sun-flower, and doubtless he would have replied: Each is beautiful, for each lives up to its own standard. But the same Charles Darwin demanding a novel with a pretty heroine and

a happy ending, has he not sunk his science and become the child? I think we may assure ourselves that he would have been saved from such childish illusions had he been led up to literature from its intellectual side and trained to analyze flowers and poems in the same way.

5. The subjects here presented have been barely touched upon. Each one might easily be treated in a separate paper. By way of conclusion let me say a word or two upon the difference between school and college study in this department. The school should carefully avoid doubtful and controversial points and restrict itself to generally received views and estimates. To perplex young minds is inadvisable. It will be quite enough if they learn what is knowable to a certainty or to a high degree of probability. Thus in a study of Dryden they need only master the general facts of his life and the broader features of his satire. But to ask them to consider the sincerity or insincerity of his conversion from Presbyterianism to Anglicanism, from Anglicanism to Roman Catholicism, would be highly unwise. His conversion should be to them a fact and nothing more. Whereas college instruction, so it seems to me, should distinctively encourage the study of points in dispute. The collegian is to acquire the habit of literary investigation, and this investigation, if it means anything, implies the weighing of evidence, the allowing for personal bias. Is the literary artist perfectly correct in his methods, or does he work haphazard? Is he sound in his personal motives, or is he tainted with prejudice and hypocrisy? These are questions which we must confront sooner or later. The collegian should be trained to meet them fearlessly and intelligently.

Persons outside the college world are apt to set too low a value upon the thinking capacity of the undergraduate. Young men between eighteen and twenty-two will estimate quite as fairly as the average mortal, if only the case be submitted to them clearly and with sufficient evidence pro and con. They prefer a discussion to a dry quizz upon matters of routine, and will take unusual pains to answer questions upon collateral reading. At least such has been my experience. Do not we initiated know that the hunting down of data from book to book is wonderfully stimulating? What is to hinder us, then, from giving our students a taste of the pleasures of the chase?

Besides, there is a grave, practical issue involved in college instruction in literature. The demand for better trained teachers of Eng-

lish is growing rapidly. The more aspiring high schools, public and private, are no longer satisfied with entrusting their English department to one who can offer only the classics and mathematics. They begin to demand instructors trained specifically in English. Now it is clear that this specific training can be obtained only at college. Here, if anywhere, the future high school teacher is to qualify himself for something more than a mere hearer of recitations, for becoming — let us devoutly hope — an authority and a guide to his pupils.

The position of teacher of English in a large and motley school is one extremely hard to fill, perhaps the hardest. For successful literary instruction demands much more than knowledge, it demands a liberally trained, well-rounded disposition, it demands literary touch. This disposition, this touch, are not to be acquired to order through hurried study. They will come only through long and close communing with the wisest and noblest that our literature affords. He who would invite them must give himself ample time for absorbing and assimilating. He will be fortunate indeed if his college reading is guided by one who knows how to combine wisdom and sympathy. In no other department does the individuality of teacher and of taught count for so much. In no other can so much good be effected by a suggestive hint, so much harm avoided by a timely note of warning.

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*SOME WAYS IN WHICH COLLEGES MAY HELP SECONDARY SCHOOLS.**

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THE facts of the situation stated:

(1.) There has lately been much talk by college instructors about the work in Secondary Schools, as they are pleased to call them. In some way or other it was found out that the average college graduate was too old to begin with advantage the active pursuits of life, i. e., bread-winning of some or another kind.

* Read at the meeting of the Connecticut High School Teachers, Hartford, February 27, 1892.

The fault must lie somewhere and with somebody, and, since the college could not but be all right, the lower or preparatory schools must be the place where, and their managers the persons upon whom, to lay the blame. No claim has been made that the schools do not meet the requirements made by the colleges themselves; on the contrary the work is even better done now than before. But it must be done sooner. At the same time the requirements of the college have been increased in amount so that the problem at present is, not how shall the schools do better work or the same amount of work as before in a shorter time, but how shall they do a much larger amount in a shorter time?

(2.) No thinking man in the full possession of his senses would try to maintain that the work in the preparatory schools is in a satisfactory condition, nor would he deny that much time and effort are lost in the attempt to carry side by side special preparatory and general courses of study. He would admit that these courses have no intimate relation to one another, that they do not grow out of the schools below them or into the colleges above them. We are working on the "block" system, with gaps between the blocks.

(3.) The question often heard by preparatory teachers, "What have you for us this year?" reveals more than a long discussion might of the relation that has existed between the schools and colleges. It has been a market relation with the sorrowful difference that the school has never been allowed to ask the question of the college as it certainly has the right to do. When now the general public, upon which the finished product is thrown, begins to complain of the quality of that product, and the college still insists that the trouble lies with the schools, can it be wondered that the school men do not take the charge kindly? The college men ask, "How many are you going to send us this year?" and lay the blame on us if the product does not turn out well and quickly enough. We feel that while they have the zeal of improvement it is often zeal "not according to knowledge."

(4.) Both the college men and school men have, at heart, the same desire: to promote right education and sound scholarship. No well-informed, intelligent man can but be alive to the great good the colleges are doing in this direction or to the immense difficulties with which they have to contend in the way of insufficient funds and scant accommodations for work. No one at all acquainted with the facts and in sympathy with true education, can deny to hundreds of

men in the colleges high praise for their self-sacrificing work. Least of all would the school men, most of them sons of the colleges, deny to them the honor they deserve or add even a straw's weight to their difficulties. For we, too, are deeply and vitally interested in the same work, being members of the same body. All we ask is that our difficulties shall have a fair measure of intelligent and friendly attention. I take, therefore, as the motto of this paper the words of Mrs. Alice Freeman Palmer, "To understand one another kindly is the business of the hour."

Having thus briefly stated the facts of the situation in respect to what has been said by the college men, the work of the schools, and the feeling and desire of both parties in the controversy, I wish briefly to offer some suggestions from the standpoint of a schoolman as to how the colleges may give us substantial help in doing better work, not only for them, but for the larger public whom we serve.

And first, I suggest a more thorough acquaintance on the part of the colleges with the schools, their aims, the place which they occupy in educational work, the actual condition of their work and their difficulties. School men, as a rule, believe the college and university are rightly regarded as the head and crown of our educational system, and this for two reasons: (1) we are nearly all college-bred and are therefore imbued with the college spirit; (2) we all love learning and are never so glad as when we can induce those under our care to go on to something higher after leaving our hands. Our aims are one with those of our *Almae Matres*, so that it is simply impossible that there should be anything but an earnest desire on our part to serve the colleges well.

But the peculiar place occupied by the schools ought to be carefully considered. Except in the case of a very few schools, preparing pupils for college is a comparatively small part of our work. To the majority of our pupils we are the last of their educational opportunities and this adds greatly to our difficulties, from the fact that a college preparatory course is not the best equipment with which to send out those whose school life ends with us. A careful consideration of this one fact ought to convince the colleges that some sort of accommodation must be made with the schools and that for the former to be too unyielding is fraught with danger to themselves, and through them to the cause of general education: to themselves in the loss of some of their best and most desirable

pupils; to the cause of general education in the loss of these men to it. The loss to the schools would also be great, but this is only an added reason for avoiding the danger if possible.

In the matter of the actual work done in the schools, there has too often been a lack of thorough acquaintance on the part of the colleges. Frequently, harsh judgment has been passed through lack of knowledge, and comprehensive condemnation, from insufficient data. We are told that we must be judged by results and we do not find fault with that. But what we do desire is that the results as the colleges see them shall *really* be a fair test of the work done. It is my fortune to work under the shadow of a great university of which I have the honor to be an alumnus; nevertheless as official head of a school which sends yearly from twenty to thirty to its halls I have yet — in six months time — to record the first visit to the school of any member of the university management, and that too though some of them are personally interested by the presence of their children in the school. This is not said by way of complaint, but it reveals a condition of things which ought not to exist and which cannot exist permanently if there is to be an intelligent adjustment of our work to the need of the colleges. From whom have we a right to ask an interest in our work if not from the colleges which are so importantly connected with us? How this better acquaintance with the schools is to be brought about must be determined largely by the colleges themselves, for to them certainly belongs the first advance which would indeed come ill from us. At the same time I am confident *we* are much to blame for the state of feeling existing in the colleges towards the schools and school men. I shall hint at this cause and at its cure — so far as we are concerned — by quoting Milton's words: — "The pious and just honoring of ourselves may be thought the radical moisture and fountain-head from whence every laudable and worthy enterprise issues forth."

Now I am perfectly well aware that college men, as a rule, are already pressed down with work. But for all this, I insist that a little time spent in *showing* the interest they ought to feel, and probably do feel, would be time well spent. The very fact that college men were *interesting* themselves in the schools would do much to remove from the general public the feeling that the college is entirely willing to "pass by on the other side."

If the colleges would help us even more effectively, they must acquaint themselves not only with the schools that lie nearest them,

but with the whole range of school work. For the difficulties of which I have already spoken and which lie within the four or five years' work of the preparatory school are not the greatest of the hard things with which we have to contend. The colleges are proud — and justly so for the most part — of being the conservators of the higher education, the theory of which is familiar to every college-bred man, at least, and is expressed in these words of President Dwight: — "The superiority of man to his uses." Second only to the colleges in this work — and sometimes I think not second, since we are closer to the people — are the preparatory schools. Are the colleges aware of the enormous pressure brought to bear upon us by a public opinion largely under the influence of the *peripatetics*, men who are much more skillful in making and airing new theories than in working them out into serviceable practice, and who rarely have any interest further than the adoption of their theory and the sale of their printed ideas?

Do the colleges know that all elementary education is shaped, not by men in the actual work, but by men who have some "method" or other by which the millennial of the education of the human race will be brought about without any labor on the part of the one educated? "You press the button and we do the rest" is their cry. And this public opinion affects all the schools, public and private, except those fortunate few that are richly enough endowed and sufficiently strong in their management to be practically independent. It seems to me all wrong that men engaged in the actual work of education, especially the college men, should not have had a more important part in shaping education, and I lay the charge at the door of the college men that they have not sufficiently informed themselves of the work done in the schools.

But there is another aspect of the matter. No college or university exists simply for the purpose of preserving within itself sound learning and education in its highest and best sense. Though this is a high privilēge and sacred duty, there is still a higher and holier one: that of service to the people. This I take to be the fundamental purpose of the existence of colleges and the noblest reason for them. No college or university, therefore, in order to perform its highest function can afford to be out of sympathy with the people. It must touch them somewhere. The disposition of the colleges has too often been to perform the first duty, but to stand aloof from the second. But this is Pharisaism, for there can be

Pharisaism in learning as well as in morals, and both are diametrically at variance with the Christian idea, and carry in themselves the seeds of the decay of that which they thought to preserve. At what point or points the colleges will put themselves in touch with the people must be left for them to determine. All that I am pleading for now is that as a first and important step in that direction they interest themselves in becoming thoroughly acquainted with the schools which might form a direct and vital link between them and the people, but which do not in the present condition of affairs.

For, to state the matter somewhat broadly, there is no continuity in the work. We receive our boys and girls from the lower schools prepared for — what? To pass the examination set for their entrance into the high school. And what then? We immediately set to work to "put them through" a course which apparently has been made partly because it contains some things which a school of about our grade ought to teach and children of about fourteen to eighteen years ought to learn, and partly because some of them want to prepare for college. Any vital connection with the work of the schools below or colleges above? None whatever. The lower schools get them ready to pass our examination, and we in turn get them ready to pass the examination into college. After they have finished our "block" the college takes them and does what it can with them. Is it any wonder that under this "block" system — why not call it a blockhead system? — the conception on the part of the pupil is that the college is not something towards which they are to grow in their school work, but something into which they are to be "boosted," when they have arrived at a certain age and have "bolted" a sufficient number of slices of learning? And so by feeding our boys and girls on the milk of methods in the lower schools, on "scraps" in the secondary schools, we lift them into the college not only weaklings unfit for the strong work the colleges ought to give them, but with a total misconception of the meaning of the world into which they have thus been thrown. Let me not be misunderstood. I am not pleading for any great system which shall take in all colleges as part of it, for it seems to me much better that they should preserve their independence, but what I do hold is that if the college work is in reality the crown of a sound education, then all the work preparatory to it must also be sound, and that a boy or girl prepared for the colleges will also have the best preparation that can be given him, thus far, for life. Or to put

it in other words, if by any chance a boy or girl, having finished the preparation for college, should be deprived of the opportunity of going on with college work, such an one ought to be the best prepared for life in the highest and best sense. Who will say that it is so now?

I am sure that a planning of the work so that it should have continuity in it — not to say growth — we could do one of two things: either give the colleges their students two years earlier fully as well prepared as now, or what would be much better, send them up at the same age as now two years in advance of their present work. But to aid in bringing this about, the colleges can no longer stand aloof watching our labor with unsympathetic if not with critical eyes, but must realize that their interests are bound up in ours as much as ours are bound up in theirs.

Before making my next suggestion I desire to analyze the entrance examination system in order to see what sort of thing it is and how it affects the schools. First, what is its purpose? The question would usually be answered by the college man's saying, "To maintain our standard, and to satisfy ourselves that those entering are fitted to go on with our work." On any fair construction of language, "standard" must mean either standard of entrance or standard of scholarship. If the former is meant, then to make the entrance examination hard is like the farmer's putting up a high fence about his field so as to keep out all but the "high jumpers." In that case, all the cattle need to do is to practice high jumping diligently for a sufficient length of time and they will be sure to get in, be they never so thin and poor. But I presume it would not be fair to understand "standard" in any other sense than standard of scholarship. To raise the standard of scholarship in school or college means nothing less than to inspire in students a love for learning. And this rests ultimately upon the personal power of the teacher, especially of the teacher in the lower schools. To suppose that a hard entrance examination or one covering a great deal of ground raises the standard of scholarship is so laughably absurd when one looks at it frankly and honestly, that argument upon it seems a waste of time. I hope to be able to show before I finish this paper that it not only does not raise the standard of scholarship — so far as the schools are concerned, at least, — but is a constant degradation of it, and a very serious obstacle in the way of the best work.

As to the second purpose of the entrance examination, that the college men may satisfy themselves that those entering are fitted to

go on with the work prescribed, one naturally asks, Is the entrance examination a test of fitness for further work? Do the college men themselves really believe it to be so, or have they found it so? There can be only one answer: no! Let us look at the matter a little more closely. Suppose a professor in Harvard college, eminent in some department not classical, who had taken a regular college course, fifteen years ago, should desire to enter the classical course at Yale next June. Suppose him to be unknown at New Haven, if that were possible, and to present himself simply as a candidate for admission, not having meanwhile looked up his preparatory work. What are the chances that he would fail to enter? Certainly 100 to 1. Who would say he was not prepared to enter the freshman class! Now suppose an average boy of seventeen or eighteen who had by dint of hard work on the part of schools, some private tutoring, and a diligent coaching on the examination papers of "preceding years sent upon request," to present himself at the same time for the same examination. The chances are 100 to 1 that he will pass, and very likely without condition. I do not say this boy is not ready to go on, but the examination says yes to a raw youth of eighteen, and no to the learned professor. You will say that an extreme case has been chosen! Let me take another. Suppose the whole graduating classes of '91 should present themselves at their respective colleges in '92, without having meanwhile freshened their preparatory work, for entrance into the same departments from which they graduated. How many would pass? About one in five. But of the unfledged youth who will really present themselves, about four in five will pass. Is it possible the recent graduates are not so well fitted to go on with the work as those who do go on with it?

I desire next to give some examples from actual experience of the way in which boys may be, and are, prepared to pass the college entrance examination. A year or two ago a young man came to a certain teacher in New Haven ten days before examination to be tutored in plane trigonometry. Upon inquiry it was learned that he knew nothing whatever about the subject. The teacher gave him ten lessons of an hour each, one each day, and he missed only one problem of the whole paper set for him. This same teacher prepared another boy once in the whole of solid geometry in a single month, i. e., twenty lessons of an hour each, so well that he did not fail on a single question. The writer once prepared a young

man on the whole of plane geometry, including all the original problems given in Wentworth, in twenty-two lessons of an hour and a half each so that he not only passed the examination but took a prize. And at another time he prepared a boy on the whole of his college preparatory work, Latin, Greek and Mathematics, with the exception of part of Cæsar and part of White's First Lessons in Greek, in less than ten months, eleven hours a week, so that he passed without condition. The most amusing case with which I am acquainted is that of a Harvard man whom, if I should name, all the college athletic world would recognize at once. His stumbling-block was Greek, a branch of polite learning for which his mind seemed totally inapt. After he finally graduated one of the genial professors asked him how in the world he ever managed to pass his Greek, seeing he never knew any and could not be impelled to learn any, even by the most strenuous efforts. "Well, sir, I went to ——," naming a well-known school man whom we all love — "and he just pounded it into me till I passed." Comments are omitted.

But I come now to the consideration of a much more serious question: the effect of the entrance examination upon the schools in respect (1) to the pupils, (2) to the teachers. And in this I shall draw no fancy sketch, but speak from the actual experience and observation of ten years in the work. No question meets a teacher in the college preparatory work more frequently than this: "Do I need this for the examination?" There is no thought of mastering the subject, no delight in knowing, no spirit of true scholarship, but only the question how to pass the examination. There is no idea of moral responsibility, or of fidelity to duty, or of obligation to self-reliance. The whole attitude is, "Here I am, get me ready for the examination." Of course, there are exceptions — and all the more noble in the general degradation — but I am speaking of the rule. Only one thing will induce the pupil to work, the fear of the disgrace of not "passing." And if at any time he begins to realize that he may not pass, he gets a tutor to "coach" him, or if unable to do that and still unwilling to work, will give it up. On the moral side the effect is fully as bad. While writing this paper I was informed on the very best of authority that not more than one student in ten passes a really honest examination. I can neither affirm nor deny this statement. I can only say that he who made the statement is worthy of confidence, and that it is an open secret amongst

college men that cheating is terribly common, and worse still, that the disposition to it is almost universally prevalent. Who does not know that this cheating is not only not thought wrong, but is either boldly defended or treated as a joke? The teacher has constantly before his eyes the examination and he holds it constantly before the eyes of his pupils, until at last he comes to think that the sole end of teaching is to get his pupils ready for examination. All freshness in work, all earnest purpose to awaken in his pupils a love for learning, all hope of making them see some of the beauties of it are burdened or crushed out by this nightmare of examination. Under such circumstances is it much wonder that work becomes perfunctory on the part of the average teacher, especially when we are judged solely by the way in which our scholars pass?

Lastly: Professor Seymour, in the February number of *School and College*, says that if ever he becomes a monomaniac the word that will be found uppermost in his mind will be "review." I most cordially agree with all that he says about the importance of review, and my own practice has always been consistent with my belief in this matter. I believe in reviews frequent and careful while the subject is in hand, and one comprehensive review when the subject is about to be completed. But what does the entrance examination compel us to do? If we wish to have the class try the preliminary examinations we must stop all advance work and devote time to the review of work, some of it completed a year, more or less, before. In our own school two months are devoted entirely to this purpose. If the whole work is left until the last year the matter becomes still worse. Again at the end all work not passed must be reviewed, some of it a second time. I will not go so far as to say that time so spent is entirely lost, but I do maintain that it could be much more profitably spent. Here are from four to five months occupied in merely freshening up for examination at the most important time in the student's school life, worth almost as much as a whole year at the beginning of his four years' course. Suppose we could go on with advance work during that time, would not the boys be better prepared than now? Two hundred pages more of Latin, two hundred more of Greek, four or five months more of Mathematics, to say nothing of the added power of reading and the increased interest!

Mr. Collar, in the December number of the *Educational Review*, uses these words: — "The practice of admitting students by certifi-

cate is unfortunately becoming more and more common." There are many that share his view, and their opinion is entitled to great weight. And yet I feel sure that most of the objections thus far urged against the certificate system are against the administration of the system and not against the system itself. For this must be said, that the system at present is what Mrs. Stowe calls a "full-blooded mongrel." Not only do only a part of the colleges use it, but those who do use it use it only in part. The only way in which to give any system a fair trial is to use it completely.

I would have the same restrictions laid upon the schools as are laid upon any business man with whom we deal. At present the colleges say to us: "We will receive certificates from you, but if you send us ill-prepared students the privilege will be withdrawn and your students must pass examinations." Do we use any such language to a business man? On the contrary, we say, "We find we cannot trust you and we will not deal with you." And I claim that on the business side of it this is the only way for the colleges to deal with us in the matter of certificates. If we are not honest enough to send only good work — and some of us have not been, I am sorry to say — let private warning be given just as we give it, or ought to give, to a business man, for his own sake as well as ours, if he sends us goods not up to the mark. If we persist, there seems to me only one way, and that is to let it be publicly known that students from our school are not satisfactorily prepared. If such a position were taken by all the colleges and rigidly adhered to, how many schools would run the risk of such treatment? But there is a higher and better position still for the colleges to take. Let them assume that we are just as much interested in good work as they, and let them have it generally understood that the schools stand to them not merely in a market relation, but in a partnership relation, all working for the same end, and then how many schools would fail to send only pupils well-prepared in the best sense of the word? This says nothing of the elevating effect upon the school in the increase both of its own self-respect and of its importance in the eyes of the community. If some such position as I have indicated should be taken by the colleges, who could believe that there would be found any necessity for harsh measures on the part of the colleges or any fear that they would suffer from poorly prepared pupils? What colleges could possibly risk anything by receiving boys on certificate from St. Paul's School, or the Girls' Latin School, or

Roxbury Latin School, or Norwich Free Academy, or Providence High School, or Hartford High School, or a hundred others which it would be easy to mention? The school men would make it a point of honor to do good work, and certainly they know when a boy is well prepared much better than can be determined by an entrance examination, however it may be made. Is it not clearly evident that admission by certificate makes us personally responsible for good work, while now we are able to throw the responsibility upon a system? If our boys "pass" well, what possible care can we have beyond, seeing we are judged by the examination only? But if my honor is involved in my recommendation, then, indeed, I must be careful. Seven years' experience of the two plans side by side may have some weight, and I unhesitatingly declare that I have in every case of two boys working side by side been able to secure better work from the one who expected to be admitted by certificate. And in my present class of boys and girls it is easily apparent that the girls are doing better work than the boys, and they all expect to be admitted by certificate. The boy is disposed to say, "I guess I can pass." Did it ever occur to us that without the examination ever before us that we could appeal to the *honor* of our boys to do good work?

By the mention of one more advantage to be derived from admission by certificate I must leave this subject, still feeling that I have not exhausted it. Perhaps one of the most mischievous results of the entrance examination is that it enables a man or woman skillful "in anticipating the sort of problems that will be set, the questions that will be asked, the passages for translation, etc.," to use Mr. Collar's words — to "get a boy ready for college." Now let there be no such thing as passing an examination and it relieves both the schools and colleges. Perhaps we feel this more in university towns than elsewhere, but it certainly is a great hindrance to good work wherever it may be found. Boys who have money depend upon being "crammed" or "coached," and it is often impossible to get good work from them. I am not saying anything against private tutoring as a means of preparing properly for college, but as a means for preparing boys for examination. The evil is in the system, and not in the tutors.

Aware that there will probably be some losses by giving up the entrance examination, but confident that the losses will be made up a thousand-fold by the adoption of the certificate system with some

such safeguards as I have suggested, I unhesitatingly advocate its adoption in the interests of good work certainly in the schools and, therefore, in the colleges themselves.

As I have thought over the subject of this paper and have tried to put my thoughts into shape, the difficulty of the problem that we are trying to solve, and that all earnest men are so deeply interested in, has not grown less. In whatever special way it is to be solved no one can say: but some things seem to me to be clear. (1) The men in the work must solve it, and that means *all* the men, college, secondary, and lower school, for the life of one is "bound in the bundle of life" with the others. There must be a fuller and kindlier recognition of this relation and interdependence before we shall progress greatly. The clearer the recognition the more apparent it will become that none can afford to stand aloof and refuse to contribute his share, be it great or small. In saying this I am not unaware of the existence of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, nor am I insensible to the good it has already done towards establishing a more friendly feeling between the college and school men, and in the progress made towards a right solution of some of the difficulties of the situation.

(2) We have heard very much of late about foreign systems, what the French are doing, the Germans and the English. All thoughtful men can but rejoice that we have such complete knowledge of what other nations are doing, and to the few men who are studying the systems of these older countries with a view of widening the circle of our knowledge, we owe a just debt. But in more than one quarter there have been signs of a disposition to recommend the substitution of some foreign system in whole or in part in this country. It seems to me that the advocates of such a scheme have forgotten that this is America and not England, or France, or Germany. Whether our system is better or worse than theirs is not now the question, nor is that necessarily of any consequence. If, for example, the English system were the best in the world, that would only mean that it was the best for England. To adopt a ready-made system might seem to be a very easy way out of our difficulties, but it would be a very foolish way. This does not mean that we cannot learn from the older countries, but whatever we learn must be made our own, digested and assimilated, before it can be of any use to us. The "working out of our own salvation" may be slow and painful, but it is the only way. President Dwight's words

may well be pondered: "The end which we have in view is not to be accomplished by a sudden and entire breaking away from what has been established, or by *imitation* of what is done by others who may be under conditions and influences quite different from our own."

(3) There must be on the part of all of us a willingness to acknowledge facts however unpleasant. A fact cannot be looked out of countenance, neither can it be gotten rid of. If, then, either college men or school men find by careful, searching inquiry that there is something wrong in their own system and that its removal would benefit them and others, let them remove it. "Is it I?" is a much better way of getting at a trouble than by looking to see if there is not something the matter with the other man. It is not only more likely to right this particular wrong, but it puts one in the proper frame of mind for improvement in general. In this work we may well take Lowell's words for our motto: "It is Man who is sacred, it is his duties and opportunities, not his rights, that now-a-days need reinforcement: it is honor, justice, culture, that makes liberty invaluable."

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*THE PLACE OF WORK PREPARATORY FOR COLLEGE IN RELATION TO OTHER WORK IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS.**

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On the wall of the chief public audience room of one of our great universities is this inscription, in sonorous Latin, which I render somewhat inadequately as follows: "Here, in forest and untilled regions, Englishmen, exiles from home, in the year of our Lord 1636, which was the sixth year after their colony had been established, believing that wisdom was before all things to be cultivated, founded a college at public cost and dedicated it to Christ and the church. This foundation was increased by the munificence of John Harvard, and further aided by the friends of letters both foreign and

* Read at the meeting of the Connecticut High School Teachers, Hartford, February 27, 1892.

native; it was finally given over into the care of the corporation and overseers; and, brought from small beginnings to greater expanse of growth, it has cultivated and cultivates the best arts, public and private." And there was added, at the suggestion, I believe, of Lowell, this verse from the Vulgate: "Those moreover who shall be taught shall shine forth as the splendor of the firmament, and those who train many to righteousness as the stars to unceasing eternities."

The respect, the confidence and the support of a community could hardly be claimed in more weighty words. Believing that wisdom was before all things to be cultivated, — mark the phrase, — our forefathers established a college. The college they established has grown into a great and complex university, which, beside and above the technical training given in its special schools, has for its high function to discover and impart knowledge, to shape public sentiment, to be at once a conserver of worthy tradition, and a leader in the same sense in the advance of scientific research of all sorts, in philosophic inquiry, and in the general progress of man. And in saying this I make the sphere of the university no greater than she declares it to be herself. "A college," — I quote again from the inscription, — "which has cultivated and cultivates the best arts," — not always under the same conditions, indeed under conditions different now in almost every respect from what they were in the beginning, but still in the same spirit, and with the same ends in view as before her, — the cultivation of wisdom, of the best arts public and private.

We have not succeeded any time, — or, perhaps we should rather say we have always succeeded, — in separating liberal and technical education as a process in the classroom or with teaching any of the sciences or arts. In whatever we do we undertake to train students or learners to know more, but to think more and better in the art of living and in whatever field a man will be a better man because he is a better man. It is also true that the conditions of modern life demand technical instruction more and more insistently, and we do. But as we never forget that thought is one thing, to make a good mechanic, or engineer, or chemist, or lawyer, is another thing, to make a good man, a citizen, and that is the distinctive aim of liberal education, which has always been ours, and undertake to do

I believe it will be admitted pretty generally, that our greatest colleges and universities, both for men and women, do recognize their function in the community to be what I have stated, and are making more or less earnest and successful endeavors to discharge it. I shall therefore spend no time in proving the desirability of a college course for all who can get it, and shall accept without question the common division of our high school work into three courses, one preparatory for college, one for the scientific school, and one intended for boys and girls whose schooling ends when they graduate from the high school itself.

There remain two general considerations with regard to the liberal education, which I wish to present before I pass on to speak of the actually existing state of things in our schools. First, the liberal education, like the Christian life or the study of philosophy, is something in which the limit is never reached. There never comes a period at which we can stop and say: "Now the process is complete; I have attained the object of my endeavors." Rather the burden of our song is always: "Not as though I had already attained, . . either were already perfect: . . . . but this one thing I do, forgetting (absit omen!) those things which are behind, and reaching forth unto those things which are before I press toward the mark." How mistaken then the popular notion that the college by the A. B. degree crowns its graduates as having reached the goal, as being now liberally educated! The fact is that the graduate of a good college is or ought to be pretty well fitted now to carry on for himself the talk of prosecuting his liberal studies, — a task he must not hope to complete in this world.

That is the first consideration I wanted to present. The second is the application of this general principle to education in its narrower sense of training in school and college. Education in this narrower sense should be treated as a continuous whole. It is not to be chopped up into separate parts, grammar school, high school, college, but it should be deliberately and carefully reckoned from the start. Its object is not merely, or even mainly, to impart certain definite bits of knowledge; it must do that, but its task is mainly to train and develop the mind. The office of the grammar school is not merely to prepare its pupils for the high school, nor again of the college preparatory course to enable its pupils to get into college; but each has to consider how it may best discharge its higher duty to those committed to its care, — the duty, namely, of

supplying what is best adapted to shape them and mould them, at the age and period of development at which they come, and to be the overseers during four or five years of that training to righteousness, — that is to right and reasonable, and therefore successful and happy living, — which constitutes true education.

To what extent are these principles recognized in our college preparatory course in schools, and how far is improvement possible? The planning of the work to be done in preparation for college rests at present largely with the various colleges; in general the requirements embrace the familiar quantum of Latin and Greek and mathematics, a little ancient history, the elements of one modern foreign language, and some little English literature and composition. Most of the high schools and academies in Connecticut have a four years' course. It is necessary to take immature and often ill-taught pupils, who have studied no language except English, and but little of that, and give them in the four years the necessary amount of Latin, the Greek in the last three, and the French or German in the last three, two, or even one, as the case may be. The mathematics have to come in along with this, and the other studies required for admission to college are sandwiched in as may be. The Greek and Latin together have to occupy more than half the pupils' time, and even so the work has to be done rapidly, — the boys and girls have to be hustled through. Is it possible for the preparatory schools to do their higher duty, and thoroughly and calmly train the young minds toward wisdom, giving them what is best adapted to help their growth just at this stage? Not so, in a four years' course. They have the fear of college examinations continually before their eyes. I have no intention of underrating the value of the study of language, especially of Latin and Greek, as a means of mental training, nor to raise the question, — though I think it is a fair one, — whether the colleges are wise in regard to the extent and the nature of their admission requirements in classics; but so much seems clear: that if the course is one of four years the Latin and Greek have to be taught under pressure, and there is not time enough to derive from these studies the advantages which might be got from them, nor again to show the pupils the interest and method there is in them, and which constitute so much part of their educational value. And further, so much of the time has to be given to them, namely more than half the total number of recitations, that there is hardly enough left for reaching the other requirements, also in a rather hasty way.

I have spoken of the shaping and development of the pupil as being the higher duty of the fitting schools, as well as of all the other institutions for liberal education. But in the case of the fitting schools the thing practically and imperatively demanded is that they shall fit, — this they are compelled to do, and in the struggle to do this they often lose sight of the higher duty, or are compelled to leave it unperformed, by reason of having a short course. It is a partial, but only a partial answer to this to say that it does not make so much difference in their case, because these pupils are going to college anyway, and what they have lost can be supplied there. It cannot. Perhaps the years between fourteen and eighteen are more important than any that come after in determining the direction in which a young person's mind will grow, — the years in which, in homely phrase, the twig may still be bent. Earlier mistakes can then be rectified, but afterward this becomes very difficult. These are the years in which a boy or girl can still be made to like or dislike study, — or any particular study. Especially they are the years in which a love of good books and the taste for reading can be formed, — and to what end, pray, is a literary education without the taste for literature? Curiosity and interest are keen, and will not be satisfied on husks or dry bones. I do not see how any observant person can fail to recognize the evils of the existing state of things, or any candid one refuse to admit them.

Before attempting to point out a remedy let us consider the other courses, the scientific and the general, at present pursued in our high schools. The scientific course in one important respect bears a close resemblance to the college preparatory course: — it has to fit its pupils for a higher institution, and its course is therefore of necessity largely shaped for it from without. It generally lays the greatest stress on the mathematics, as the college preparatory course does on Latin and Greek. Algebra and geometry occupy a considerable amount of time, and in the last year trigonometry and solid geometry. Three or even more of the departments of natural science are taught, sometimes for only one term at a time. There is a choice between French and German, and the language chosen is usually pursued two or three years. Some history is taught, and more or less English, usually the latter. Latin is sometimes a part of the scientific course, sometimes not; though inasmuch as some Latin is required for most scientific schools one hardly sees how this requirement is met without it, unless pupils in the scientific course are allowed to

take some of the Latin work of the classical course. Probably this is the actual solution of the difficulty; for it is, I believe, a common practice not to differentiate the various courses in our schools till after one or even two years. It is difficult to speak in general terms about the scientific course, as there seems to be but little uniformity in regard to it. Occasionally there is no special course provided, but members of the English course who wish to prepare for scientific schools may substitute trigonometry for part of the regular work of the English course. In other schools the scientific course seems to present, comparatively speaking, a fairly good variety of work.

There remains the "English," or "General" course, which is probably the most important we have to consider, — important because we have here to provide for pupils who avowedly expect their school education to end with this course. They have only four years, and we want to give them the very best things, the most helpful and most important for them to receive just at this time. It is of course useless, under existing conditions in education, to try to teach them in these years the same things that they would learn in four years in college, — to attempt to give a collegiate education in the general course of the high school; it would be impossible, and probably not desirable even if it were possible. But while we should not try to teach them the same things as are taught in college, we should keep steadily in view that we are trying to make good, well-equipped, successful men and women, to train them first and foremost to wisdom, — for is wisdom, pray, the prerogative of the college-bred? — to give them a broad out-look on life. They may not climb so high, perhaps, or see so far, but their eyes must still be opened to the beauty and reach of life. We must give them something which will go with them always, and keep their lives, even if spent in engrossing cares and toil, from sinking to the low, dull level of materialism.

I do not mean that this aim is entirely unrecognized in our school education, both in the general and the preparatory course, or that the attempt is not made to reach it; nor again that the attempt has been altogether unsuccessful. Reformers in education make a great mistake when they adopt the tone which says: "Oh, the fossilism of the old school! Come listen to us, we will teach you wisdom; you are all wrong; but we have the real article, fire-new, infallibly correct, such as has never existed before, — *noch nicht dagewesen*,

as the Germans say." It is a mistake to talk so; first a mistake as to fact, and also a mistake in policy, for such a tone at once arouses hostility. But while I believe that the objects I have set forth are held, theoretically, to be the things chiefly to be aimed at, I think that it is worth while to look frequently and see whether there is any point at which we can improve our methods and work more successfully to bring these objects about. And so I wish to consider special points with reference to the various courses.

The difficulty with our preparatory course seems to be chiefly that it is hurried. We have to do a large amount of definitely prescribed work. In our progress through the fields, or, if you like, up the mountain of knowledge, we have to reach a fixed station at a fixed hour, and our time is very short. We have therefore to fasten our eye on the goal and press on; there is no time to stop to gather flowers, or pick up stones, or stop and gaze at the landscape; we are too much occupied with the anxiety to reach our destination in time. Everybody knows that that is not the way, in general, to enjoy a walk. Nor again is it the way to make a young person like study. Possible remedies are many. First, we can make the start as at present, and let the goal stay where it is; that is, take our pupils at the same age and degree of preparation as now, and let there be no change in the college requirements for admission; but we will fix the hour of arrival later. Inasmuch as the age of entering college even now is generally admitted to be too high, this remedy may be dismissed at once from consideration.

Secondly, we may fix the goal lower down. This does not lie in our power, but in that of the colleges, and would moreover be an undesirable change even if they were willing to make it.

The third and only remaining remedy is to gain time at the beginning. This is what must be done, and there have been two chief methods proposed for doing it. One is that pupils be taken out of the grammar schools before graduation, and the course preparatory for college be made to cover five or even six years. The other has been called the method of enrichment, and proposes that some of the elementary work at present necessary in the high school be done in the grammar school. It is this method which I am on all accounts inclined to favor.

There is no doubt that the schemes of study in our grammar schools are defective, as well as in the high schools. The defects, or the results of them, are very apparent to the high school teacher.

The scholars who enter the high school are not nearly so far advanced as they ought to be, either in store of knowledge or in development and power of mind. At thirteen or fourteen they sometimes cannot spell well; they often cannot read intelligently, either to themselves or aloud; they can seldom express themselves well, either in talking or writing. Yet for the next four years they must spend two-thirds of their time studying foreign languages; what does that make the teaching of Latin and Greek? Chiefly drill in the structure of the sentence. Of course such drill is important for them to have, and it is at present a great part of the educational value of Latin and Greek that they furnish it; but much of the labor and drudgery might have been saved by proper training earlier. It is unfortunate, too, because this is drudgery, and is felt much more because it comes at a time when the pupils rightly consider that they are too old for that sort of thing. They are too old for it in the sense that its proper place was earlier; they are not too old for it in fact, however, because it is absolutely essential, and if they did not have it before they must have it now. From this state of things springs the common distaste for Greek and Latin, so much disagreeable work has had to be done over them, and so little time has been left for aesthetic or historical training.

What is at the root of all this? The boys and girls in the grammar school have not learned to think. They can be taught however before the age of fourteen to think clearly and accurately on subjects adapted to their comprehension; subjects for which they have data of experience. They can be taught to read intelligently, to digest and tell over again in their own words the substance of what they read, to distinguish accurately the parts of speech and the structure of sentences. They can make a beginning of the study of English literature and composition and can be thoroughly taught the rudiments of three or four departments of natural science, with actual experimental work; they can learn much United States history, arithmetic, geography, and can get a good foundation for geometry, by actual work in making the geometric solids, — and all this before the age of fourteen. They should also have received a somewhat extended course of instruction in manual training. This is no rose-colored vision. It has been done, all this and more, already, and is being done. I know an enthusiastic and successful teacher, who has done both grammar school and college preparatory work, who tells me that not only this can be done, but beside this a year's instruc-

tion in Latin can be given. See what this would mean to all departments of our high school course. First it would mean scholars coming to us trained to observe, to question, to think and to express their thoughts. It would mean relief from the necessity of drudging over so much analysis of sentences in Latin and Greek. It would mean less exertion to the pupil in preparing a given lesson. Pupils again who had received such a preliminary training under competent instruction would be eager to learn and fond of learning, alert, keen, not the unenlightened, ill-disciplined, unindustrious sort of which we have too many. Finally if they had had a year's training in Latin there would be so much start which they would have. In any case there would be less work needing to be done, more time to do it in and better trained pupils to do it with.

What shall be done with these pupils for the next four years? That will depend, of course, on what they are to do afterward. We will first consider those who are to go to college. I shall not attempt to give a complete, detailed scheme of study, but shall merely suggest some things which seem to me essential. First of all let me reiterate my chief contention, that we must bear in mind in dealing with these pupils that it is our duty first of all to train and develop them, giving them what they need most at this stage. The course of study must not be a cram for a set of examinations; it must be homogeneous, carefully planned in all its parts with reference to what has preceded and what is to follow it. It must be conceived in a liberal spirit. It will then not merely satisfy any reasonable college requirements, but will have done much more beside. We must never tolerate the idea, tacit or expressed, that those subjects on which our pupils are to be examined for college are much more important than the rest of their work. At the same time we must not omit anything which the colleges demand. I therefore waive the question whether Greek and Latin are essential elements in a full liberal education. Those studies are demanded and even put in the front rank by most of the colleges. We must therefore teach them, and teach them thoroughly. But beside teaching them thoroughly we must make them alive, — or rather, in order to teach them thoroughly we must make them alive; that is, we must be sure that our pupils have an adequate knowledge of the history of the Greeks and Romans, — what manner of people they were, what is their place and significance in history. We must teach them how the artistic spirit of the Greeks shaped the development of the fine

arts, and their literature that of all literature since; and how the Roman civilization, language, law, and governmental system were the foundation on which the structure of the modern civilized world is based. I believe that it is possible to present these ideas, not at great length, of course, nor in an abstruse form, but simply, clearly, and compactly, so that they can be grasped by ordinary pupils of seventeen; and I feel confident that our pupils would be vastly more likely to value Greek and Latin, and would get infinitely more good from them if they received, at a comparatively early stage of their study of them a knowledge of these vitally important facts. This is merely one example of something which I would lay down as of prime importance: that one part of the instruction in every subject should be to teach the learner what it is all about; what that study undertakes to do, what its bearing is on life, in what relation it stands to other departments of human knowledge, what its educational value is, and why it is desirable for him to learn it. Nay more, I would try to give our scholars in the high schools, in a simple form, an idea of what this liberal education is which they are after, so that they may have an intelligent notion of what they are doing, and why they are doing it. When stated thus, the principle seems axiomatic; but yet as far as my experience goes I should say that while it may be generally admitted as true, it is not by any means generally acted upon.

Of the importance of the mathematics as a means of mental discipline there is happily no question so far as I know. We leave that subject then and pass on. An intelligent acquaintance with the problems and methods of natural science is only of late years coming to be recognized as an indispensable part of what we call a liberal education; but it is so recognized, and it is important that some pretty thorough instruction in natural science forms a part of the high school work for every pupil. We have seen that according to the scheme I mentioned for grammar school training, pupils on entering the high school will have been taught the rudiments of three or four departments of natural science; this work should be continued in the high school by more extended work in one or two departments. Many considerations commend physics as the one best adapted to the purpose; chemistry is also very good. One of these should be made the basis of thorough training in the scientific method, and there should be a thorough course of laboratory work actually performed by the pupil.

In the grammar schools will also have been sown the seeds of a taste for literature, and the beginnings will have been made of an acquaintance with the literature of our own tongue; there will also have been practice in simple English composition. Further work should be done in these directions. There has always been more or less writing of compositions in high schools, and I have nothing particular to say on that point except to urge that subjects be assigned which have real interest and importance in themselves, and are at the same time adapted to the knowledge of boys and girls and their way of looking at life.

It cannot be said, however, that the study of English literature holds as yet anything like the place it deserves in the work of our schools. A pupil who goes to college should be familiar with the general course of English literature, knowing the epoch of each of the chief writers, and the general nature of his work, and the titles of some of his chief productions; and besides this general survey of the whole field, he should have read a good many of the works of the great authors. This work in English literature should not be regarded as something which any teacher can do who happens to have a spare hour, but it should be conducted by teachers who possess the literary taste, wide reading, and special training which are necessary in order to make the work in English mean much to pupils. There should also be the proper apparatus provided, and it should be thoroughly used. Just as fresh flowers, herbaria, glass models, microscopes, needles, forceps, etc., are indispensable for the best work in botany, or a physical laboratory for the best work in physics, so is a well-selected, well-stocked library necessary for the best work in English literature, or in any other department of human knowledge, for that matter. And not only is a library necessary, owned by the school or at least freely opened to its scholars, but they must be taught and encouraged to use it. For a school to have a library and not use every means to habituate its scholars to the free and constant use of it, is like its having a fine collection of physical apparatus, not shown often to the scholars and used by them under proper supervision, but kept constantly in glass cases. Such a collection is a fine thing to show visitors, but there its usefulness ceases. The same thing is true of a library whose books remain unused on its shelves. No: let us make the building, or hall, or room in which the books are kept as beautiful, as pleasant, as attractive as our means will allow; and give the boys and girls all the freedom we

can, to go directly to the shelves, take down books and look them over, rub against them, taste them, smell of them, and get all the familiarity and affection which comes from personal contact.

One or two points more. Gymnastics are not required for our colleges, but a little time must be found for them somewhere. There is the "*in corpore sano*." For the *mens sana* there is one study seldom taught in schools which I think would be very wholesome. I should like to recommend a simple, live, hearty course in ethics, conducted by somebody who understands young people and sympathizes with them. It is true that the whole course of their schooling, their contact with one another and with their teachers, ought to be a wholesome course of instruction in ethics, still I should like to see something a little more systematic and formal, — and yet not too formal, — in addition.

One thing further, and I believe I have done with those who are to go to college. I have said not a word about history, except in connection with Greek and Latin. To be sure, most of the colleges require Greek and Roman history, but nothing more in that department. Young persons can properly wait until they enter college before doing much work in history, and we cannot at present find room for very much history in our preparatory course, but a course in civil government at least should be given, and enough English history to make the English literature course intelligible.

The preparatory course as I have outlined it for our high schools makes, in connection with the grammar school course I suggested as preliminary to it, a pretty broad basis for a liberal education. Is it not then the best thing for those pupils also who are not going to college? Some persons think that it is; but I am inclined to say No, for several reasons.

The pupils who enter this course are to have only these four years of schooling. In that time we ought to give them, though not in the same way, the most important thing to be got from a college course: namely, an idea of what liberal culture means, a love for it and a desire to get as much of it as they can; an outlook on life which will make their lives something more than a humdrum round of toil relieved only by common-place enjoyment. Many of them will have to work hard probably all their lives; we must not make them discontented with their lot; but we must give them the desire and the ability to adorn their lives with something higher than material pleasures. Is it desirable that they should spend a third of what

time they can spend with us on Greek and Latin? Most people here in Connecticut say, they had better omit Greek, but study Latin for as much as two years. Well, perhaps they are right. I am not disposed to say at once that they are not. But there are some things I do wish to lay down as essential.

They must certainly have a pretty good training in mathematics. They should do the same sort of work in English composition and English literature which I have spoken of above, only their reading should be made more extended; they should do more work in this department than is required of those who are going to college. The English course should include practice in debate. There should also be a pretty thorough course in American political history, civil government, and political science. The same sort of work in natural science should be required as in the other course, though perhaps both chemistry and physics should be taught. I should recommend also the same instruction in ethics. Besides this they should learn French or German well enough to read it with ease without a dictionary and to write it correctly. History should be taught and made interesting; either a course in general history, or better, selected topics treated somewhat in detail; best of all, perhaps, both. The study of English should be continuous throughout all four years, — not necessarily for the same number of hours per week throughout, but there should not be a single term in which the pupils do not read and write English. The French or German should extend through at least three years, and the literature of the language pursued should also be taught as thoroughly as the time allows.

There should be of course the same instruction given as to the object of learning the various things they study and the bearing of each subject on life in general, and on other studies. It should be our aim to give them such a love for study and such interest in their studies, that they will be inspired to continue the course of their liberal education in after life.

So much for the liberal education in the general course. But that is not all we ought to do. Since it is important for many of these boys and girls to be able to support themselves as soon as possible after leaving school, we ought to furnish some technical education as well. Appropriate subjects are book-keeping and commercial arithmetic, type-writing, stenography, carpentry, mechanical drawing, machine shop work, cooking and sewing, photography,

electrical engineering — the list might be extended indefinitely. I do not mean of course that every high school in Connecticut should teach all of these subjects: that can be done only by great institutions, like the admirably planned Pratt Institute in Brooklyn, or the Drexel Institute in Philadelphia. But as many of them should be taught as the endowment and size of the given school render practicable. Nor again of course should a great number of these be taken by the same pupil; probably only one or two. Here is the point, more than in the case of the liberal studies, at which the elective system is needed in secondary schools.

I am very far from having exhausted the subject. I have not even enumerated all the subjects which I personally consider desirable. I have not said a word, for example, about music. But, comparatively speaking, I am not much concerned as to the fate of any one special study, or solicitous to suggest just enough and not too much in proposing things needful to be done. I have striven first of all to set forth what seems to me the right spirit in which to face the problem, and to present general considerations which I believe to be of vital importance. Let us all apprehend clearly what a liberal education is, and conceive of it as a continuous process of development, which is not terminated at any particular time, and must not be chopped up into bits. Let us always remember that we are for a certain period the overseers and guides in this process of development, and as such have a vastly higher duty than merely to get pupils into college. Let us never forget how important it is for a pupil to have a clear idea of what he is doing, of the ultimate object he is after, and of the various studies which he pursues to help him attain it. If we keep these things continually before us, it will not be a work of great labor to arrange how many hours under given conditions we can best devote to each particular thing; and the question of a little more or less Latin or English or salad-dressing will sink into insignificance.

*HOW TO CULTIVATE THE SCIENTIFIC SPIRIT.**

W. T. MATHER, WILLISTON SEMINARY, EASTHAMPTON.

THE subject which has been assigned to me for discussion this afternoon is in itself a very complex one, involving considerations too extended for the limited time at my disposal. Any exhaustive treatment of the theme is beyond our power here, and hence this attempt must be, at its best, far from satisfactory.

In opening this subject let us first ask ourselves what is this scientific spirit concerning which we hear so much, and which we are desirous of inculcating in the mind of the scholar. What is the peculiar characteristic which we mark in the boy or man as belonging to the true scientific student? Is it peculiar to scientific men alone? Is it in itself natural and inborn, or is it something which results from a course of training which it is in our power to give?

This scientific spirit, as I would define it, is a love of science for its own sake, joined to a willingness and desire to work out with infinite patience the problems which are constantly to be met with. We study the lives of great scientific thinkers and note these two characteristics of devotion and patience, and we observe that where these are lacking nothing of scientific value is ever accomplished.

And yet, if we analyze closely, we find that these qualities do not belong to scientific men alone but are characteristic of the classicist as well, and in fact of all earnest workers in every field of life. The scientific spirit is the classical spirit, the business spirit, the religious spirit, in a word, the spirit of thoughtful progress.

And again, if we continue our analysis, we find that this spirit is not necessarily natural or inborn but is largely, if not wholly, the result of training. At first glance the opposite seems true. The careers of great scientists and inventors are apparently at variance with my conclusion. But if we study their lives we find that in

* A paper read before the Academic and High School Teachers' Association of Western Massachusetts at their tenth annual meeting in Westfield, Feb. 5, 1892.

youth, by training and association, were given the impulses which directed their future work. Who can say that these men of Napoleonic effort would not have made their mark in the field of literature had their schooling so trained them? In many cases it is true there is a natural aptitude for mechanics and experimenting, but I hold that any student of brains can have a successful career as a scientist if his mind shall be led in that direction, and that the scientific spirit, so called, is not essentially different from any other desire for progress.

Admitting these conclusions, another question claims our attention. Is the course of instruction in science at present offered in our common schools adapted to inculcate this spirit? Who can answer that it is? Many of us find it worse than inadequate, warping the mind, stultifying all perceptions, other than those that are merely of the senses, and tending to narrowness of living. Show me the teacher in our common schools who can thoughtfully say that science, as taught, is calculated to give the student more than a passing interest in the subject, or leads to breadth of thought, or that hard, patient effort which alone can give success in life.

But, you say, we are not educating scientific men. We are merely training those boys who from lack of means or inclination (generally, sad to say, the latter) are not fitting themselves for further study. We are simply endeavoring, in our public schools to give them ideas which shall prove of practical value in their careers as workmen, farmers or merchants. That is true, but our question still holds good. Are we, who are teachers of science, obtaining results at all adequate to the time and labor expended, or do these results compare with those given by a purely classical training? My own experience as a teacher, and my study of the curriculum of many of our high schools, has forced me to the conclusion that the time spent at present in scientific study is practically wasted, the scholars at its close being better fitted for life and its labors only as they are two or three years older and have been disciplined to some extent by contact with other minds. This is indeed a strong statement, but I feel sure that a careful investigation will bear me out. I do not mean that the scholars are not interested. Of course they are; interested in any study that requires but little preparation and allows of time-occupying questions in the classroom. Interested in play-work? Of course they are. Why is it

that many students of shallow mind, unable to complete the simplest classical course, graduate easily from the so-called scientific department? Why is it that we hear them remark to each other that "Latin is an awful grind, you ought to take chemistry: that's a snap."

Again let me ask, are our scientific courses conducive to further reading on the part of the student? This is a very important question. We live in a world of books, as well as in a world of scientific achievements, and countless are the publications devoted to these subjects. Some time ago a gentleman of large culture remarked that it is an absurd mistake to believe that we are governed by Law, and added "We are governed by men and newspapers." This statement, so true of the political world, is in a large sense applicable here. Progress in scientific learning is determined to a great extent by the literature of the day. *The boy who does not read is mentally dying.* Now among classical students, young and old, we find an ever increasing interest in the advancement of these subjects. Accounts of fresh discoveries in Egypt, excavations at Babylon, Delphi, Olympia, or Rome are eagerly read by many. Every librarian will tell you that the per cent of those who read such works is constantly on the increase, and several of our great city libraries are meeting this scholarly demand by loaning to the schools a large number of volumes each term. Now do we notice this to be the case with our scientific scholars? Is there any growing interest in the progress of practical life as set forth in books and magazines? Is there not rather an almost gigantic apathy towards all such reading and private study? This question alone is worth our most thoughtful consideration.

Something evidently is wrong, but I cannot believe that the difficulty lies in the nature of the subject. Rather, I feel sure, that Natural Science, if properly taught, will broaden the mind, create studious habits, and awaken a desire for enlarged knowledge which will make every scholar a student of literature in some form.

Where then is the trouble? Is it not clear that it lies in the arrangement of the course of study, and in the methods of teaching? Let us first consider the course of study. Here I would illustrate the argument which I wish to present by a course of instruction in science offered by one of our leading high schools, the period of work covering four years of forty weeks each.

FIRST YEAR.

1. Latin, 40 (weeks).
2. Algebra, 40.
3. English Grammar, 12; Physiology, 16; Physics, 12.
4. Reading, 40.

SECOND YEAR.

1. Cæsar, 40.
2. Geometry, 28; Arithmetic, 12.
3. Physics, 20; Botany, 20.
4. Reading, 40.

THIRD YEAR.

1. Virgil, 28; Cicero, 12.
2. French, 40.
3. Modern History, 12; Chemistry, 28.
4. Reading.

FOURTH YEAR.

1. English Literature, 24; Civil Government, 16.
2. French, 40.
3. Astronomy, 16; Geology, 14; Zoölogy, 10.
4. English Grammar, 10; Geography, 8; Arithmetic, 10; U. S. History, 12.

Notice, please, several things in this course. In the first place, pretty much "*the whole earth*" is covered. The scholars *dabble* in almost every department of knowledge. Dabble, I say, for what else can be the result? Were this not so, what universal geniuses they must become! How much better educated men and women than our fathers and mothers who never soared to such heights of learning! Alas! Too often we find that, as with Icarus of old, their wings are only fastened by a dab of wax put there by their teachers, and the soaring brings a sad fall! We often hear the growth of an education compared to the building of a pyramid, and we are told that if we would build high we must make the foundation broad. This is indeed true, but in endeavoring to accomplish this let us take care that we are not building that foundation partly of cobble stones to work loose later, partly of wood to decay, and largely of mud which will ooze out and let the structure fall.

Notice again the arrangement of the sciences in this course. In the first year physiology occupies sixteen weeks and physics twelve. In the second year botany twenty and physics twenty. In the third

year chemistry twenty-eight, and in the fourth astronomy sixteen, geology fourteen and zoölogy ten. Logical, isn't it? Physiology the first year, botany the second and zoölogy the fourth! How well adapted to give the student a clear knowledge of the fundamental principles of that great subject, Biology! How clear in their minds must be the relation of these branches thus separated! If this method is applicable here, why not also in classical subjects? Why not study Cicero a part of one year, Cæsar a portion of another, then skip a year and take up Latin grammar in a fourth? Again notice that physics is placed in the first two years, thirty-two weeks in all, broken by a long vacation. Such an arrangement accords with mental philosophy, doesn't it? One of the most complex of sciences, full of discussions of dynes, ergs, specific-gravity, specific-heat, specific-resistance, ohms, amperes, volts, molecular and atomic motions, studied by immature minds! Still again chemistry, which is abstract in the extreme, is placed in the third year, while in the fourth we have a delightful mixture of astronomy, geology, and zoölogy, which, to the average student, must prove as "the world, the flesh and the devil."

This course which I have selected for illustration is but one of many equally illogical and absurd, calculated rather to destroy than to create that scientific spirit which we recognize as so desirable.

Let us now turn our attention to the methods of teaching which are generally employed. And here we note that the text-book is not teaching. Merely assigning a lesson one day and hearing the scholar blunder through it the next is not the kind of instruction that makes every scholar a thinker. However well planned a school book may be it is after all merely a book of texts upon which to build the desired knowledge. Moreover, no one book is the best for all schools. These latter vary as conditions of life vary, and every wise teacher will adapt the material to the requirements of the student. I frequently ask myself whether we are not too often discussing mere theories, without applying them to the practical cases about us. Take the subject of physics for example. Are the laws so demonstrated that the student will be led to notice illustrations of them outside of the class room? Is the statement of every principle followed by practical problems, which shall require constant use of the simpler mathematics, particularly of the metric system? When the course is finished does the student understand, not the theories alone, but their application? Can he, for example, explain clearly the principle and construction of the telephone, telegraph, dynamo,

motor, arc and incandescent lamps, and the various electrical appliances in common use? Most important of all, can he take up a work on electricity or magnetism, and, without tremendous effort, understand even one-quarter of it?

Again, consider the subject of zoölogy. Is the course of study arranged with the idea of evolution as its centre, and is the order clear and logical from the amoeba to the human being? Is the study not merely one of external form but of internal structure and comparative physiology as well, so arranged that the student sees the likenesses and differences between animals, in what ways they move, obtain food, digest, get rid of wastes, and to what extent in each the controlling nervous system is developed? In other words are the various forms of animal life understood in some degree as is his own body, after the study of physiology?

In like manner we might take up the subject of chemistry and ask pertinent questions with reference to the instruction given, for in many ways it is utterly inadequate to bring to light the fundamental ideas of this great science; but time forbids.

Such questions as these lead every student of secondary education to believe that the instruction in science is not what it should be. Am I putting it too strongly when I say that the scientific spirit is often wholly wanting in the teacher as well as in the scholars? That spirit demands a true unselfishness and a great enthusiasm. And, I ask, how many teachers are cultivating, yes, cultivating these qualities? The true scientist, wherever he may be located, no matter how poor the accommodations, is in love with his laboratory, and is constantly spending odd moments, or early and late hours, in making it more convenient. Conveniences mean better work by both teacher and pupil, and every addition brings with it increased interest. So, too, the successful teacher has ever in mind a broad and comprehensive scheme for building up the department. We cannot dwell too strongly upon this. If the laboratory be small and cramped, there is no need of bewailing the fact, and then doing nothing. Rather, the instructor will gather day by day, aye, year by year, apparatus and materials, and if the appropriation be small, will study how to make it go as far as possible, not for the present alone but for the future. This in itself is a great art. How many teachers make much of their own apparatus? How many import their materials duty free and save thereby? How many gather catalogues and price lists and study them as text-books having a fund of knowledge that will prove of benefit to the department?

I am very fond of the slang word of the "travelling" men, "hustle." There is a world of meaning in it. Every teacher should be a "hustler," always planning how the instruction or the laboratory can be improved, and, furthermore, should be blessed with a scientific conscience, a term which means, *beg, borrow, or steal whatever will prove of value to the school and never return anything.*

I might spend the whole of my hour this afternoon in discussing this alone, for I firmly believe that what we need, as much as anything in our teaching is this contagious enthusiasm which makes much out of little; a real love for the subject, and, best of all, for the school.

Thus far in this discussion we have confined ourselves to the arrangement and teaching of the natural sciences, and have not considered the other desirable studies, though upon the selection of these much depends. To my mind there are too many subjects taught which have little value to the average scholar. Why, even in our most progressive schools there is generally a short course in mental and moral philosophy! Think of it! Mental and moral philosophy studied by those in whose minds the logical faculty is just developing! Hard enough for seniors in college, when taught by talented professors who have devoted themselves to these subjects alone! Of what possible use can they prove to the common school scholar? So too we might question the advisability of giving instruction in other branches equally beyond the comprehension of the student. The main difficulty is that we try to teach too many subjects. A good course in literature, history, or one modern language would be worth vastly more for education. This dabbling in various branches is in no way calculated to fit boys or girls for any work in life. It is opposed to all the precepts of common life, to the work of the shop, aye, to the home, where father and mother are earnestly striving to inculcate the maxim that one thing well done is better than many half-done. We do not desire here to discuss what subjects should be omitted, for that must depend upon the school and especially upon the teachers. Only let the course that is adopted be a complete one and the instruction enthusiastic. It does not so much matter what is the subject as how it is taught.

But all this is a digression from the main idea of my discussion. Since it is evident to each one of us that our system of scientific education in our schools is often poorly arranged and poorly taught,

a remedy must be sought. This I think we may find in fewer studies and a different arrangement. The course of study in science which I desire to propose covers three years of the ordinary four year course: biology the second year, physics the third, and chemistry and geology the fourth. This is clearly the proper order. Biology should naturally come first, the concrete before the abstract, the study of animals and plants at the early period in life when boys and girls are interested in these things, and when nature appeals to them with especial force. If carried out well the results of instruction with young scholars can be made to compare favorably with those attained by many colleges. This is a strong statement but a close investigation will yield abundant proof.

And here let me take for illustration, if you will pardon the egotism, the course in biology as given in Williston Seminary, because I believe that we have achieved rather remarkable results. And first a word concerning the laboratory. The room is a large one, some thirty-five feet square, having at one end half circles of chairs facing the desk and a large blackboard. Around two sides of the room, just below the window sills, extends a wide shelf on which stand twelve microscopes, two in front of each window. These microscopes are kept free from dust by large bell-jars which are suspended from the ceiling and counterpoised by small bags filled with sand. At the other end of the room from the desk are thirteen small pine tables two by three feet, having a drawer in each end. These drawers are secured by locks and each is numbered. Within each is a dissecting microscope, a box of instruments, and two wooden pill boxes containing pins and cover glasses. Each article is numbered as is the drawer, and it is an easy matter, at the close of each term to look through the drawers and note whatever is missing or broken. On each table there are also two large zinc dissecting pans, having a layer of paraffine in the bottom. On one side of the room is a case for specimens having glass doors above, and cupboards below containing light wooden trays. In one corner of the room is a large iron sink supplied by several faucets, also several tanks for specimens.

All this enumeration may seem wearisome, but I would not give it had I no point to make in so doing. Such a complete laboratory is perhaps an impossibility in many schools, but much can be done in this direction at a very small expense aside from the microscopes. The tables cost very little indeed, and if you will allow me, I will

show you the contents of one drawer, to prove how easily such appliances can be procured.*

The cost of microscopes is indeed large, but a class microscope to pass from hand to hand can be procured for about $15, and slides can easily be prepared for necessary illustration.

The class in biology at present numbers twenty-three, and five hours each week throughout the school year are devoted to the subject. A brief description of the methods used may prove of interest to some. And here, let me say, that no one text-book proving adequate to our needs, we make large use of notes, copied on the Hektograph, the sheets that are given out from time to time being placed in cheap book-covers made for us by a firm in town. The notes are loaned to the student, and he is held responsible for their safe return. This has proved to be a very practical method, the instructor not being confined to any one book or line of work, material being gathered from many sources.

At the commencement of the course, careful attention is given to

* The box which contains the dissecting instruments is of pine, 4 x 7½ x 1½ in. outside, having a cover sliding in grooves. Two dozen of these were made at a shop in Amherst at a cost of about $2.00. The instruments are placed in small racks sawed out of hard wood. They consist of three needles in handles, two small dissecting knives, one large cartilage knife, scissors and forceps. In making the handles for the knives and needles I had rods, $\frac{3}{16}$ in. in diameter and 3 ft. long, turned at a fish-pole factory at a cost of two cents each. I cut these into short lengths, drilled a small hole in one end of each and forced in the needle. A coat of dead black paint improved the appearance. The knives I cut out of thin sheet steel, leaving a tang at the end opposite the point, and filed the blades to size and shape. These were heated to a cherry red in a Bunsen flame, dropped into oil to harden them, and were then forced into the handles, and finally ground on a fine oil-stone wheel. The scissors, large cartilage knife and forceps were imported from Germany.

The dissecting microscope has a base of thin pine 9 x 3 in. At the middle of the base, about 2¾ in. apart, are fastened two uprights of the same thin pine 3 x 3 in. Between these swings a mirror, made by soldering a brass wire across the back of a cheap toy mirror such as are sold for five cents. In the top of the uprights, fitting tightly between them, is placed a "Handy Dissecting Microscope" made by Bausch and Lomb. The whole forms a very efficient instrument for fine dissection.

The small wooden pill boxes afford an easy method of keeping each student supplied with pins for use in dissection and with cover glasses, which are otherwise often lost or broken.

Three glass slides are also placed in each drawer, and an old razor, carefully sharpened, for section cutting. These latter I purchased at the barber shops for twenty-five cents each.

the construction of the microscope and the principles involved. Though physics has not yet been studied by the class, it has been found practical to discuss the laws of refraction of light and their application here, the aim being to familiarize the scholar with the formation of images and how various amounts of magnification are secured; and with spherical and chromatic aberration and the means employed to correct them.

The main subject is then introduced by the study of cells illustrated by constant use of the microscope, and this is followed by a discussion of the relations between plants and animals. The work of the fall and winter terms being confined to zoölogy, plant life is not discussed further, but the divisions of the animal kingdom are next taken up in order commencing with the Protozoa. In each division one or more animals are selected as types and studied *in detail*, and then dissected, or examined with the microscope if too minute. This is a reversal of the order frequently followed, but, in our experience, has given better results, the student having a clear idea of what he is to observe, and hence making a more complete and accurate dissection. Later in the course, when the powers of observation are better developed, the scholar is made to examine some one form and write out in detail his observations. The report is then looked over by the instructor, and when advisable, returned for correction as the result of further study. While this method would undoubtedly prove beneficial if followed in every case, the time allowed for the course is not sufficient, neither could one instructor attend to the details of the work with a number of scholars. For each dissection notes are furnished modeled after those in Huxley's and Martin's "Practical Biology." Having thus gained a complete knowledge of the structure of some one animal, others in the same division are then taken up and compared with the form studied, in order that the scholar may be led to notice the likenesses and differences between animals, and to gain an idea of the arrangement of the kingdom as a whole. The details of classification are avoided, about as much being required as in the smaller text-books on zoölogy. Much attention is given to comparative physiology, the various animals examined being compared with reference to the structure of their digestive, muscular, respiratory, nervous, and reproductive systems, and to the use, perfection and action of the various organs. Constant use is made of the stereopticon, illustrations being gathered from very many sources; mounted specimens

and models are passed around the class; large diagrammatic figures and drawings of dissected specimens are shown, and the endeavor is made to illustrate everything to the fullest possible extent.* Great care is taken in the use of technical terms, not with the idea of avoiding but rather of so gradually introducing them that the student shall understand them fully and become familiar with their use. The subject of zoölogy closes naturally, at the end of the winter term, with human anatomy and physiology, and not more than three weeks are necessary for this, as the previous study has made the

* Very much can be done in this direction and at a small expense. An oil stereopticon can be purchased very cheaply, or, what is better, can easily be made at home, the lenses being obtained from any dealer in optical goods. Mr. Sidney Herbert, 22 Milk street, Boston, will furnish the necessary materials at a low price. Prof. Pillsbury of Smith College has designed a very efficient and inexpensive solar lantern which is very serviceable when a stereopticon is not desirable. Mr. J. H. Lovell, Amherst, Mass., will make beautiful slides from engravings in books at a cost of fifty cents each, or the teacher can himself prepare them if he be interested in photography. Tracings on thin paper or ground glass will also show with good effect. Microscopic objects can also be projected on the screen with a solar microscope, used with the sun's rays, or in connection with the stereopticon.

Specimens in alcohol, either whole animals or dissected portions, are of great interest and can readily be prepared by the students. A collection of insects should be commenced by every school and followed up with care, not merely with the aim of filling a cabinet with pretty specimens, but for practical use in the class work. Expensive cases are not necessary. Pasteboard boxes, such as "gent's hose" are packed in, can be gotten at any dry goods store, and small pieces of elder pitch fastened to the bottom with mucilage will obviate the expense of sheet cork. A few drops of creosote or a little arsenic in the bottom will prevent the destruction of the specimens by other insects.

I have made a number of large charts by taking a frame, 30 x 48 in., stretching on it a sheet of cotton cloth, coating it with glue size, and drawing the diagram with printer's ink, diluted with turpentine. Various colored inks can be used as well. Steel brads are driven into the frame and the heads cut off at an angle so as to form a sharp point. The sheets can thus be easily stretched or removed at will. In the case of a difficult drawing, I have found it a rapid method to first trace the figure on ground glass and then project the image on the sheet with the stereopticon. The outline can then be hastily drawn with a soft crayon pencil, to be filled in at leisure.

The above are but a few suggestions, but if the attempt be made to illustrate each point, a surprising number of methods will occur to the practical teacher. Allow me to add that I will gladly furnish any further information as to the details of methods employed in Williston Seminary, to any who may desire it.

scholar familiar with the terms used and with the majority of the facts required. As a text-book, we use Furneaux's "Animal Physiology," and find it all that can be desired; concise, easily understood and finely illustrated. In the spring-time we take up botany, using as a text-book Campbell's "Structural and Systematic Botany," a course similar to that pursued in zoölogy. The mere analysis of flowers we pay but little attention to. Collecting and arranging plants is like collecting and arranging postage stamps; good in its way; pretty work, but teaching very little concerning the forms of plant life, their structure, growth and physiology.

Such a course as this which I have outlined can easily be planned and successfully carried out in any school, provided that the teacher have that scientific spirit which we are looking for in the scholar.

The study of physics should begin the second year and continue through it, five hours a week. With us in Williston Seminary, it has not been possible to use any one text-book, the best being poor enough. In the fall term, I would suggest the use of some small manual, such as "Mechanics for Beginners," by J. B. Lock; in the winter term a manual on electricity and magnetism, of which there are a large number; and in the spring term another work of similar type, such as "Light, Heat and Sound," by D. E. Jones. Moreover, whatever text-book or books be used, they should be supplemented by numerous problems gathered by the teacher from various sources.* This work is very essential. A dear friend of mine once called on a doctor in Boston to ask his advice with reference to a disease which was threatening him, and the doctor, after a lengthy examination, called in for consultation his aged father-in-law, once a prominent physician. The old gentleman heard patiently the results of the examination without uttering a word, looked the patient over carefully, and then, rising from his chair, limped out of the room, saying as he departed, "Walk! walk! walk!" So I would reiterate, problems! problems! problems!

* The following books will be found helpful:—

Examples in Physics by D. E. Jones. Macmillan & Co.

Exercises in Electrical and Magnetic Measurements by Day. Longmans, Green & Co.

Examples on Heat and Electricity by H. H. Turner. Macmillan & Co.

Elementary Physics by Benj. Loewy. Macmillan & Co.

Electric Light Arithmetic by R. E. Day. Macmillan & Co.

Many excellent problems can easily be prepared by the teacher using cases with which the scholars are familiar. Such practice will often much interest the students.

They are the best cure. Give them every day, more in review than advance. If one proves difficult, follow it from time to time with others of the same nature. Continue this until to the student ergs, dynes, specific gravity, specific heat, volts, ohms, and all the other puzzling terms are perfectly familiar, and their use fully understood. *Make the subject hard!* Constant drill by the teacher and close application on the part of the pupil will alone cultivate the scientific spirit. When scholars complain of overwork there is but one remedy. Get your school committee to buy a plot of ground, dig some holes, bury the sufferers, and then plant grape vines over them. They may make fertilizer, but they won't make men! Apparatus for illustration is greatly to be desired, and if you have n't it, get it! Build it, if you can; manipulate the committee, if possible; appeal to every friend of the school for help. Laboratory work is feasible, no matter how cramped may be the accommodations. Get the scholars to build apparatus for you, or put in place whatever you purchase. They will enjoy it and will gain a fund of practical knowledge as well. Have them make a fine induction coil, a small electric motor or dynamo, set up electric bells, gas-lighting apparatus, batteries, etc. Take an electrical journal and study the advertisements as well as the text, and make use of the information gained. In a word, "hustle," and fill every scholar with your enthusiasm. I would that I had time to enlarge on this. The purchase and making of apparatus is a study in itself, and much of practical value can be said, but my time is brief, and I wish to add a word concerning the study of chemistry.

Chemistry should occupy at least twenty-five weeks of the last year, five exercises each week of two hours each, and should consist almost wholly of laboratory work and practical problems. This year in my own classes, I discarded all of the ordinary text-books, save Williams's "Introduction to Chemical Science," and this is used merely for the experiments. Instead, every scholar is obliged to purchase Richter's "Inorganic Chemistry" (the best book of its kind), and in connection with each experiment I give out a paper of questions and problems, with references to the Richter. A blank space follows each question and the student is obliged to fill in the answer while at work in the laboratory. Numerous practical problems are also given out in a similar way for study outside of the class-room, and a prize is offered for the best set of answers to questions and problems completed during the course. This plan arose from the

feeling that, after finishing an ordinary school text-book, the student would be unable to study farther alone, being wholly unused to the plan of our more advanced works and unfamiliar with many of the terms employed. The results have been most gratifying. Among others, it has proved feasible to allow the students to work wholly separately and as rapidly as they desire, encouraging them to spend time, outside of regular hours, in the laboratory. The advanced students take up special work, such as volumetric and gravimetric methods of analysis, and frequently become enthusiastic in their labors. And here let me again urge the constant use of problems. They are fully as essential here as in the study of physics.* There are many things which can be taught only by their use, and they will always prove beneficial.

In this brief and very scattered manner, I have endeavored to outline a course in natural science calculated to awaken in even the average scholar the true scientific spirit, to broaden his mind, create new ideas, and put him in touch with this age of progress; but I cannot close without a plea for enthusiasm. As teachers, our hearts and lives should be in our work. Animated by a splendid enthusiasm, there is nothing that cannot be accomplished in time. Don't let us complain longer of overwork. Rather glory in the fact that we can keep every fibre of brain and muscle at its fullest tension. Blessed are we when men can say of us, in future years, that we died of overwork. For then will all posterity know that what we had to do was well done, and that we were called above because our labor for God and humanity was ended. One cannot meet a Westerner without being infected with his spirit. He will talk you blind concerning the glories of his far distant home, and the wonderful resources of the great West. We New Englanders are too cold, too self-contained, too much afraid of our neighbors. We make our motto, "Nothing too much," and do nothing enough. I am reminded of the old story of the traveller in the far West who, stopping at a frontier town, attended a ball. He was particularly struck

* The following books will assist materially in this:—
Chemical Problems by Thorpe & Tate. Macmillan & Co.
Chemical Problems by J. C. Foye. D. Van Nostrand.
Chemical Problems by Crabfield & Burns. D. C. Heath & Co.
Chemical Arithmetic by J. M. Coit. D. C. Heath & Co.
Papers in Inorganic Chemistry by Ellis. Longmans, Green & Co.
Elementary Chemical Arithmetic by S. Lofton. Macmillan & Co.
Questions on Chemistry by F. Jones. Macmillan & Co.

with the appearance of a certain maiden, the beauty of the room. Her face was a dream of healthy loveliness, and her figure superb, but her partners were few and far between. At last, mustering up courage, without an introduction, he asked her if she would like to dance. "You jest bet I will, stranger," she answered, "I've sot still so long, I've most tuk root." This is just our position. We have "tuk root," and what we need is animation, life, get-up-and-go-ahead-iveness! The true scientific man is a madman, a "crank" on one subject. We smile at him sometimes, but his success is tremendous. Let us have ever before our eyes as the motto of our lives, that one word of mighty meaning, "Hustle."

COMMUNICATION.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY: —

IN the March number of THE ACADEMY, Mr. Henry B. Lathrop, Harvard College, does me too much honor by asserting that I claim for my article, "Was Hamlet Insane *and* Pretending Insanity," an originality I did not claim. Mr. Lathrop draws forced inferences from my words and then bravely attacks his own man of straw.

It is "pathetic" that one who is so sure of his opinion that he boldly asserts that *all* of his opponents and *many* of his seconds "fundamentally misconceive the subject," does not attack the citations and interpretations I advance in proof of Hamlet's madness.

Mr. Lathrop asserts that he discusses the citations which appear to him to be most important. What are they? First the question whether Hamlet's statement "we 'll teach you to drink deep ere you depart," shall be considered a jest or an evidence that he knew something about such pleasures. This point was one of three I advanced to prove that Hamlet, previous to his father's death, was much like other young men. The most forcible of my reasons for this opinion, Hamlet's intimate familiarity with the players and his wonderful expertness with the sword, are carefully passed over, and great stress laid upon the weakest of my arguments, one which is at least open to question either way.

Mr. Lathrop has a very fetching style of logic to prove that Hamlet was naturally melancholy. "Hamlet was studious." "All students are prone to melancholy." Therefore Hamlet was melancholy! Has Mr. Lathrop's observation of the students of his own university led him to the conclusion that "all students are prone to melancholy?"

The second criticism consists of a suggestion that I might have placed the time of Hamlet's suicidal soliloquy four, instead of two, months, after his father's death. I fail to see what bearing this has upon the question at issue, or where its "importance" is manifested, but I take pleasure in calling his attention to the fact that the quotation he bases his suggestion upon,

"'T is twice two months, my lord,"

was uttered by Ophelia in the play scene at least two months after Hamlet says in his soliloquy,

"But two months dead, nay not so much!"

Mr. Lathrop's next "important" criticism is on the question whether the death of his father, or that combined with his mother's marriage was the cause of Hamlet's melancholy. To this all "important question" he devotes one-half a page, in which he includes twenty-seven lines of the soliloquy, to prove that which I never denied; and yet his "limited space" will not permit him to follow me in my real arguments. Mr. Lathrop says he has tried to discuss these points which "seemed most important." I regret that his idea of what is "important" should differ so much from mine. He apparently considers it unnecessary to match interpretations and arguments with other commentators, advancing only his opinion. I can therefore only set my opinion against his.

It is his opinion that the development of the theme, — Hamlet insane and pretending insanity — "would make a tragedy very different from Hamlet." It is my opinion that it would result in just such a tragedy as Hamlet. It is his opinion that "if Hamlet is regarded as insane the tragic interest of the struggle is entirely lost." It is my opinion that the tragic interest is intensified. It is his opinion that if Hamlet is insane, "Horatio's

'Carnal, bloody, and unnatural acts,'

and the rest, have no longer any significance as instances of the power of chance." It is my opinion that Shakespeare [illegible]tended

his play to portray the "power of chance," but that all the actions of the play follow logical and necessary lines, causes producing results and evil bringing attendant evils in its train.

I wish in closing to draw attention to the very high estimate Mr. Lathrop places upon Shakespeare, and to some peculiar ideas of dramatic art.

"A dramatist must be a scene-painter, he must splash his colors on with a broom." His work must be "essentially popular;" it must "appeal to the intelligence of his audience;" it "must be instantly and generally intelligible;" it "must be emphasized so that, if possible, not a single auditor can fail to understand it."

This criticism may be applicable to dramatic art as exemplified in such "plays" as "The Brass Monkey," "Hole in the Ground," "The City Directory," etc., but it needs little discrimination to perceive that Shakespeare, judged by such rules, was anything but a dramatist. Shakespeare did not write "to split the ears of the groundlings." His were and are plays which "pleased not the millions," which are "caviare to the general." There are no writings (we may except the Bible) which have been so variously understood, both on and off the stage, as Shakespeare. Mr. Lathrop does not flatter Shakespeare, nor himself, when he sets up as the acme of his art, the coarse daubs of the scenic artist, the broad splashes of the white-wash broom.

Mr. B. O. McIntire expresses the belief that I "exaggerated the importance" of Hamlet's pretended insanity. I think if anything I fell short of giving it its due prominence.

I quite agree with Mr. McIntire that Hamlet "was in no state of mind for forming plans," that is, plans as a sane mind would understand the word. The action of Hamlet's mind would be better described as an *impulse*. What to Hamlet would seem to be a very clever and well matured plan, to a sane person would appear to be, as it is, a very foolish impulse.

As I have already said, Hamlet up to the point where he bids his companions depart, and says,

"Look you, I 'll go pray!"

does not give any indication of an intent to simulate insanity, nor indeed does he express any desire that the ghost's appearance shall be kept secret. Then comes Horatio's assertion,

"These are but wild and whirling words!"

and *instantly* Hamlet's disordered mind feels the impulse to pretend insanity. This impulse is not of the nature of a plan, it is one of those sudden impressions which are common to insane persons. Having got the idea into his brain he then forms what may be called a plan for carrying it out, and he sticks to his plan, despite its manifest absurdity, with the pertinacity common to the insane. To my mind Hamlet's pretended insanity was simply the insane act of an insane person. I do not agree with many commentators that Hamlet pretends insanity to cover up his insanity. It does not seem to me that he was at this time conscious of his madness. It does seem that later he was conscious of a change in himself, but it is noticeable that he carefully refrains from calling it madness. He speaks of it as "weakness," "melancholy," "passion"; but only in his apology to Laertes, at which time, dimly conscious, perhaps, of his coming death, his mind, as is not uncommon in such cases, sees more clearly, does he proclaim the fact that he is mad.

R. C. MacDonald, M. D.

Boston, March 23, 1892.

ALBERT BARNES WATKINS.

The death of Dr. Watkins, Assistant Secretary of the Regents at Albany, brings to the secondary schools of New York a heavy loss. Not only was he intimately acquainted with the needs and conditions of those schools, but his personality and his methods of work were such that he had come into a relation of cordial friendship and sympathy with the principals of the state, such as is rarely found in official intercourse so intimate and exacting as that between the Regents' office and the schools. This came not unnaturally from the circumstances under which Dr. Watkins took up the work. He had been prepared for college at a country academy, had taught for years in a country academy; had been a county commissioner for four years; had visited every corner of the state as inspector of teachers' classes, and knew, as few have ever known, the possibilities and the limitations of secondary education in New York, especially in country academies and the union schools that have

grown out of them. Moreover, he had the happy trait of never getting out of sympathy with those who were laboring in the same field in which he had formerly labored. The change of position from Adams to Albany was marked by no corresponding change in his feelings. The lessons which thirty years of life in the schools had taught him were not forgotten at the official desk. Like Lincoln, he never came to look down upon the conditions of his earlier life, and, as a natural result, the principals of the state always had a feeling that there was really one of their own number in charge of the details of the Regents' office.

Unfailing courtesy is a characteristic as rare as it is pleasing, and this characteristic Dr. Watkins had. In his relations with the principals of the state it gave him an influence and won him a love which could not otherwise have come to one in his position. Faithful and painstaking work can never be done without bearing some fruit, but in his case there was an added fragrance and beauty given to it by the genial and unassuming manner of its performance. In announcing his death some of the daily papers spoke of him as "the eminent educator." The phrase counts for little anywhere, least of all in the journalism of to-day, and as applied to Dr. Watkins it is merely a meaningless conventionalism. Through many years of loyal service he proved himself an earnest and thorough teacher, an efficient principal, — strong rather in faithfulness and patient care of details than as an originator of bold schemes of advertising,—a wise administrator and a good man. We know of no higher praise to give him, and we can honestly give him no less.

Of the annoyances to which Dr. Watkins in particular, and the whole Regents' office in a somewhat lesser degree, were subjected during the last part of Secretary Murray's administration and the early part of Secretary Dewey's, only his most intimate friends have any adequate knowledge. Dr. Murray's long sickness threw upon the assistant secretary an additional load of duties and at the same time severely taxed his sympathies. The retirement of Dr. Murray and the appointment of Dr. Dewey lightened to some degree the responsibilities which were weighing so heavily upon Dr. Watkins's shoulders, but they brought little relief from the annoyances and hindrances that had long been unbearable, and which before the death of Chancellor Pierson came to be scarcely concealable. Since that time Dr. Watkins's work has been carried on under conditions of cordial coöperation and support. But the work of the office is

in itself to the last degree laborious and wearing, and we fear that in the pain and weariness of those former trying years were sown the seeds of the disease which ripened and bore fruit in his final sickness. The strain was so severe that it might easily have weakened his constitution beyond the power of recuperation.

Albert Barnes Watkins was born at Naples, New York, July 8, 1838. Having prepared for college at Franklin Academy (Prattsburg) and at Fairfield Seminary, he entered the junior class at Amherst College in 1861, graduating with honor in 1863. He had already proved himself a successful teacher and had supported himself by his own efforts while at the fitting school and in college. After graduating he taught for several years in Fairfield Seminary, spent one year in Westboro, Mass., organizing a new school, and finally took charge of the Hungerford Collegiate Institute at Adams, New York, in 1870. He was elected County Commissioner in 1878, reëlected in 1881, and appointed Inspector of Teachers' Classes in 1882. In 1884 he became Assistant Secretary of the Board of Regents, in which position he remained up to the time of his death. Early last February he was compelled to give up work, suffering from a complication of diseases, of which insomnia seemed to be the most serious apparent symptom. The best of medical attendance and skill were able to afford no substantial relief, and he died at his home in Albany, Friday morning, March 18th. In recognition of their appreciation of his services the Regents had granted him a leave of absence until July 1st, but sickness overtook him before he was able to take advantage of the much needed rest.

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UNDER THE AUSPICES OF THE

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DEVOTED TO THE INTERESTS OF HIGH SCHOOLS ACADEMIES AND ACADEMIC DEPARTMENTS

VOL. VII MAY 1892 NO. 4

*OPENING REMARKS BY THE PRESIDENT.**

THE twenty-fifth annual meeting of the Association naturally suggests a little turning over of the leaves of the secretary's records. Even so short a period as a quarter of a century is an interesting subject of review. Many men still active in the Association assisted in its beginnings, and had even then long seen the gradual growth of the conditions that made its establishment desirable. Twenty-five years more, and these men will all have passed away. My business at this moment is simply reminiscence: in 1917 he who shall have my function will have to undertake research.

The Association had its genesis in a meeting of high school teachers who seem to have sequestered themselves from the sessions of the State Teachers' Association at its meeting in Springfield, in Oct. 1867, for the purpose of discussing "a uniform standard for admission to the several colleges of the state." Of this first meeting of high school teachers Harris R. Greene, of Worcester, was chairman, and W. F. Bradbury, of Cambridge, secretary. The Massachusetts Teacher tells who joined in the discussion of the question of college requirements. They were, — Burnham of Newburyport, Bradbury of Cambridge, Sherwin of Boston, Hammond of Monson, Rolfe of Cambridge, Cooke of Wilbraham, Ginn of Boston, Howe of West Roxbury, Pierce of Chicopee Falls, Wenzell of Marlboro, Brackett of Lexington, Bigelow of Newburyport, Whitney of Water-

* See page 228.

town, Philbrick of Boston, Smith of Boston, Stebbins of Springfield, Greene of Worcester, Atkinson of Cambridge. These men, with such others as were present, but are not named as having taken part in the discussion, were the progenitors of the Association. They issued a call to high school and academy teachers throughout the state to meet in Boston the following February "to discuss the various standards of admission as now fixed by the several colleges in the state, and other important questions connected with the teaching of the classics."

The meeting which, in pursuance of this call, was held in the hall of the English High School in Bedford street, in February, 1868, was really the first meeting of the Association. Dr. Taylor of Andover was chosen president, and W. F. Bradbury, secretary. Mr. Bradbury, you recollect, had already discharged the duties of this office for the body that had issued the call for the meeting. Since then it comes to pass that presidents may come and presidents may go, but the secretary goes on forever.

At the meeting in 1869 a committee appointed the previous year reported a constitution and a name, and since then the Association has thriven under its organic law and lived up to its purpose of bringing together for consultation the men and women engaged in secondary education in Massachusetts.

Dr. Taylor, as I have said, was the first president. He died in 1871. The next president was Mr. Collar, the man who, next to the secretary, has been, perhaps, most closely identified with the Association, and whose persuasive eloquence has oftenest given direction to its public opinion and determined the lines of its action. The third president was Rev. Charles Hammond. Mr. Hammond attended all the meetings of the Association so long as he lived. He was first missed from the twelfth meeting in 1879. His successor was Elbridge Smith, who still flourishes in body and mind, and entertains vigorous opinions about the doings of the present generation of educators. All Mr. Smith's successors live and labor among us in conspicuous posts of usefulness.

Presidents Taylor and Hammond and their coevals impressed upon the early meetings of the Association a distinct character of old-time scholarship that has now utterly passed away. I remember listening with admiration to Dr. Taylor while he expounded, with subtile discrimination and in choice English, the various values and shades of meaning of the pronoun *ipse;* and very deeply impressed

on my memory is Mr. Hammond's robust figure, as he stood on the platform in Bedford street, and with ponderous gesture and in grave and solemn tones exhorted us to give our days and nights to the study of the English grammar of Bishop Lowth.

We young men appreciated *ipse*, and doubtless felt some pangs of conscience because we could not muster courage to attack the eighteenth century bishop; but Francis Gardner's eccentricities were to us a mystery. For what theory, for what tendency, in education, did this man stand? Was he the Latin grammar incarnate, — the consummate flower of classical learning? He seems to have enriched pedagogic philosophy with one peculiar apothegm, — "Float with the tide." And yet he had the repute of independence and originality. Perhaps he was indulging in occult sarcasm. With what glee we once saw Dr. Gardner neatly used up in debate by Mr. Collar! The school committee were apparently about to extend very greatly the range of Latin reading in the Latin school. The headmaster of the school appeared utterly dazed, was querulous and helpless. As I recollect the proposition of the committee, it was enough to daze anyone; but we enjoyed seeing the man who was wont to bluff everybody, — the Dr. Johnson of pedagogues, — brought to confusion by a younger man, who was also master of a Latin school, and who believed that the new thing could be done.

Then there were regularly to be listened to in those days the acerbities and the complainings of William P. Atkinson, who was wont to stand up for the then infantile subject of English. He too is gone, and we have seen his English books the prey of a new generation in the bookstores. Gone too is Henry N. Hudson, who believed in Shakespeare, Wordsworth, Burke, and Webster, and would throw all school reading-books to the dogs, but that his kindly feeling for the dogs stood in the way. Mr. Hudson came too soon. Would he were living now, to see the reading-books he hated so soundly all hurrying to the limbo where he wished them.

As I have already shown, the Association originated in a desire felt by certain high school men attending a meeting of the State Teachers' Association to discuss the relations exisiting between schools and colleges. These men convened, in the most legitimate manner, for a purpose more special than that of the larger body which had brought them together. It was a case of division and specialization of function, such as characterizes all developing organisms. Already the process has been repeated, and our Association,

still young, is a mother of several years' standing. And again it was the same old need that first brought together our own founders, — the need of adjusting the relations between two classes of institutions, —that brought about this latest evolution, the New England Association of Preparatory Schools and Colleges. This also was a natural and inevitable outgrowth of the existing conditions. Heads of preparatory schools and professors in colleges find it absolutely necessary to study problems of mutual adjustment, — problems that, by their very nature, do not belong to secondary education proper and have no special interest for teachers whose sole concern is with the human mind and its laws as related to the objects of knowledge. For instance, after elaborate conference and most minute sifting of the elements of the problem, the college men and the preparatory men evolved a plan of examination in English. Such a scheme was doubtless of the utmost importance in view of certain wholly artificial exigencies determined by the shape which college examinations have, in these days, come to take. To ease the work of preparing for examinations and the work of conducting examinations was the legitimate aim of this scheme of English work. As a plan of scientific literary study, suitable for youth in secondary schools, the scheme is utterly worthless, and deserves to be only disregarded by the teacher who is endeavoring to work out a methodic in English. Now the function of this Association is ever to remain unhampered by entangling alliances; to consider, not how to fit for certain impending examinations, — as if examinations were a law of nature, — but how to educate youth in accordance with the fitness of things.

At the first meeting of the Association in 1868, President Thomas Hill of Harvard College was present and joined in the debates. But the other day this veteran educator, so familiar to attendants at institute meetings a generation ago, went over to the majority. At the time of the second meeting in 1869, there was an interregnum in the Harvard presidency. But the third meeting, in 1870, was made interesting by the presence of Charles W. Eliot, who ever since has been almost constantly with us, a most original, stimulating, inspiring, and, I may almost say, provoking, force. It is no small distinction to this body that President Eliot, by all odds the leader in American education to-day, got some portion of his training in the arena of debate which we provided him. Here he came in contact with men who saw his own problems from other points

of view. As he has been an ever-ready speaker, so fascinating in colloquy that he was always sure to be called up, we have always been kept informed about his opinions on certain educational matters, and have been able to watch the growth of his ideas. Once he seemed inimical to free high schools. Certainly he seems so no longer. Much rather is he a hearty and sympathetic coöperator with us in everything that tends towards the aggrandizing of our schools. Once he strenuously advocated the existing distinction between Latin Schools and English High Schools on grounds that have since been rendered nugatory by conditions that he has himself been the foremost one to help bring about. I believe I am not far wrong when I say that President Eliot at first made upon secondary teachers the impression of a scholarly patrician a little out of his element among professors and pedagogues. But surely he has swept away every vestige of such a notion; for the evident aim and purpose of his more fully developed activity is to democratize the upper education, to deprive it of its old shibboleths, to strip off its academic robes and make it go to work to earn its living and serve its generation.

These twenty-five years have seen the acceptance of the elective system in our colleges and its reflex action on the schools. We have had to enrich our programmes by giving modern studies greater scope and providing substitutes for Greek and Latin. Twenty-five years ago German was almost unknown in secondary schools: now it is a common subject there. The natural sciences, twenty-five years ago, were still taught with text-book and lecture: now they are taught in laboratories, each pupil working by himself, making his own observations and drawing his own conclusions. In this quarter-century the text-book generally has dwindled in importance. Once the student of history, e. g., was given a small volume, to be practically learned by heart as the canon of historical knowledge. Now the pupil in history is sent to libraries to find information in many books. The object which the teacher keeps in view is no longer to impart a complete mass of information about a subject, but to train his pupils in the art of finding their way in the subject, that so they may attain, not great knowledge, but great skill in gaining knowledge as need shall arise. This Association has seen, in Latin and Greek, the old prescription of certain books and chapters abandoned, and, in its stead, the simple requirement adopted, that the candidate for admission to college must be able to read Latin

and Greek. These are immense gains to secondary education. The impulse that gave our society birth was a part of the same great movement in education that has gone on realizing all these changes. The records of our debates reflect every phase of this progress. We have been a substantial part of it all. The high schools of Massachusetts have caught the modern spirit more quickly because of our existence.

The papers and the discussions recorded in our secretary's book will be valuable as history because they will show what were the questions at any moment agitating the world of secondary education. I am sorry Mr. Bradbury's ink is fading. The early records are growing dim. The dimmer they become the more they will pique curiosity. Before they become absolutely illegible the Association should appoint a historiographer, — one who, like the secretary, was present at the beginnings, and could summon up from the storehouse of his memory many things said and done by the men who are gone, and who could reproduce the personal traits of some of the heroes who, to this generation, are becoming mere shadows of names. This historiographer should be a man of fine literary taste, full of reverence for the past, an admirer of ancient manners and scholarship as exemplified in the Everetts of that day; it should be the Nestor of our host, who has seen generations of articulate speaking mortals pass away, but is with us still, mentally as sound as he is beloved and honored; — it should be Elbridge Smith.

In education everything is discussed, but few things are settled. The main thing for the individual teacher is to be in the midst of the discussion, to feel the movement, and not at all to look for ultimate decisions of live questions. A settled question is a dead issue, no longer of interest to active minds. The palmy days of every interest are the days when it fights for recognition, for assimilation in institutions. The present moment is the hey-day of manual training. The high schools have got their English, their laboratories, their gymnasiums: now they are getting their workshops. How would this have sounded twenty-five years ago! How commonplace it sounds now! All this tremendous revolution in education we have seen in our life-time as an association. From Samuel Taylor, with his nice and scholarly dissertations on *ipse*, and Charles Hammond, with his exhortation to study Bishop Lowth, to ecstatic eulogies of the jack-plane, the file and the turning-lathe, — what a step! Now as an association of thinkers about education, we have

no business to look upon this step as a step either up or down. No moral or aesthetic quality pertains to it. Nothing could be more unscientific than to decry the workshop on the one hand, or to extol it as a panacea for all pedagogic troubles on the other. What good, for secondary education, is to be derived from the workshop? How is the workshop to be utilized in a larger sense than the manual-training people intend! The movement needs no aid from us: resistance to it would be useless. How can we harness this new motor and make it do our work?

This question will evidently need early discussion in our meetings. I cannot forbear giving future investigators of it a hint. I would suggest that in manual training may be seen the promise and potency of a force that will one day utterly break up and destroy our present system of examinations. At present a pupil is always examined in what he remembers: in the future he will be examined for what he can do. In the school of the past the class is the unit: in the workshop the individual absolutely must be the unit. An examination, whether for Harvard College or for a high school diploma, implies and presupposes the same preparation in great masses of youth. All the presuppositions of uniformity are undermined by the new movements in education, but by none more than by manual training in workshop and laboratory. That the teacher should employ advanced and scientific methods over the boy at the vise, and old and worn-out methods over the boy in the class-room, will appear an anomaly so absurd that we shall have to strain every nerve, — we teachers of language and literature, — not to appear fearfully left behind in the onward movement of educational practice. Manual training is evidently destined to be a force in secondary education, and should be hospitably entertained by this Association, *sine studio et ira*, purely as an interesting thing, out of which much may be made.

Another step onward in high school development that our corporate life has witnessed has been the multiplication of high schools in our growing cities. This subject needs thorough investigation. The only way of multiplying thus far deemed possible is the constitution of an English and a Latin school as separate organisms. I wonder that this course has not before this elicited papers for our programmes. The question is, — where lies the natural line of cleavage in a high school that is about to be split. Does it not occur to some observer that at present the custom is to force a cleavage down across all the natural strata? The question involves others, and is far-reaching in

its implications. Perhaps its very magnitude frightens the investigators away. But our next quarter century will have to grapple with it, and the sooner we begin the better.

Again, have we been quite hospitable to those institutions of secondary education which do not belong to the public system, but which have grown up in response to a public demand and support themselves without drawing upon the public purse? Nobody ever quite knew whether the public was going to want manual training: all that was perfectly clear was that certain zealous agitators wanted it. But the public has actually grown for itself certain schools, thus proving that it wanted them and knew that it wanted them. Fortunate it has been for the public treasury that those citizens who wanted musical training for their children did not set about a great propaganda to have what they wanted put into the public schools, but got up their own conservatories. Fortunate it has been for the public treasury that those citizens who wanted commercial training for their children remain contented with the commercial colleges and the schools of languages. Telegraphers, type-writers, elocutionists, short-hand writers, pay tuition in their own schools. All these schools are essential parts of our system of secondary education. Liberal education got its name from the conceit that it was the education proper to the *liber*, the ἐλεύθερος as distinguished, not from the δοῦλος, the slave, but from the βάναυσος, the hand-worker. The βάναυσος, the *opifex*, is now to have his innings. The modern ferment is working off the old notion that education should have nothing to do with the earning of a living. All the enthusiasm, all the *élan*, all the *go*, are now on the side of those who see that education cannot be divorced from life, and the great concerns of life.

This very month of April 1892 sees consummated in Prussia, — and we know that it is Prussia that sets the pace for the world in education, — a forward step in modernization of the profoundest significance. In the gymnasia time has been subtracted from Latin and Greek to be given to English and German. Students with no Latin or Greek at all may for certain purposes be matriculated at the universities.

This is the trend of things. The problems that wait for discussion are of vast import to us as secondary teachers. Unspeakably dead is the high school teacher whom they do not interest, who does not take pleasure in talking them over with his contemporaries. Just now we rejoice to see the grammar schools catching it, as we

have ourselves been catching it these twenty-five years. The function of this Association may be said to be to help keep institutions plastic, susceptible of new impressions and fresh shapings, that the modern spirit, which is sure in the end to have its way in all things, may find us and our schools tractable and open to the calls of the time.

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*TRANSLATIONS OF THE ANCIENT CLASSICS IN THE LITERARY COURSES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS.**

ANDREW J. GEORGE, HIGH SCHOOL, NEWTON, MASS.

THE attention which the subject of English literature is receiving in the present movement in education is exceedingly gratifying to those who think they see in the right placing of this great branch of culture, one of the most powerful instruments for lifting our whole system out of the deep grooves in which it has been so long and so slowly moving.

Methods of teaching this subject are formulated in almost every educational journal, and are advocated before almost every assembly of teachers, and yet we are not very rapidly approaching the goal of uniformity; indeed each new contribution to the subject reveals to the judicious, that such a consummation is not possible, nor desirable. What then should be the aim in our conferences on this subject? I make bold to assert that it should be in every instance *uniformity of results*. Upon this question of results, however, there is, I am sorry to say, a great difference of opinion among teachers, if we can judge by the actual outcome of their work.

In studying this question both in England and America, one finds that there are two very great enemies of the study of English literature. On the one side are those who have claimed for the study of the ancient classics the chief place in our system of liberal education, and who when they saw their idol rudely assailed by the advocates

* See page 228.

of modern science and the modern languages, entered the lists armed with grammar and lexicon; on the other side are the sworn enemies of the philologists, men who have seen how barren such a study of the classics has been, and who now demand a surrender in the interest of modern science and the modern languages.

We know very well that this condition of affairs is not due to any deep seated hatred of the classics as classics, but to the conduct of those who have persistently refused to distinguish "between a literary and a philological study of Greek and Latin; between their interest as monuments of language, and their value as expressions of genius and art." The philologist has insisted that classical literature is valuable chiefly as illustrating embryology of words, and that its relation to history, to ethics, to politics, and to aesthetics is of secondary importance.

When graduates of such training attempt to teach English literature, what is the result? You all know that analysis is pressed at every point, and that interest flags for the same reason that it flagged in the study of the classics. This wretched system of word-mongering is well adapted to recitational effect, and shows itself both in the character of the examinations set and in the production of a certain class of annotated text-books in English. The examinations are such as to test the student's memory, and the notes are chiefly monuments of language. These two supplement each other; the notes prepare for such a test, and the test requires such notes, and between the two the student "pores, and dwindles as he pores."

That such a system prevails in many of our colleges and universities we are quite sure from personal observation. Here is the mid year examination in Shakespeare, given in February, 1892, at one of our largest universities, and out of sixty-five questions, from which a selection could be made by the student, there is not one which does not rest upon a philological, a grammatical or a chronological basis, and the knowledge required to answer each must be obtained from memory either of the instructor's lectures or the editor's notes.

Now no one who has the slightest conception of what a liberal education means, would for a moment disparage the study of the classics; one would rather insist that they be given a still more prominent place than that which they now hold, and this is sure to result from such a study of them as will emphasize their function as instruments of culture. An ability to read and appreciate the beauty

and truth of any language is the first consideration; its origin, history, processes of growth are of great, but by no means of equal, importance.

Philology is of immense interest and value; it is one of the most important instruments in the scientific study of literature; it is of no value whatever as an instrument of culture; it neither forms, sustains, nor consoles; it contributes nothing to the cultivation of the emotions or the taste; it is a science and as such ministers to one's instinct for knowledge. Literature on the other hand, forms, sustains, consoles; it contributes to the cultivation of the taste, and the emotions; it enlarges, stimulates, and refines; it is an art and as such ministers to one's instinct for conduct and beauty. For this reason, the philologists tell us, literature cannot be taught, nor can it be made the subject for examination. Professor Earle says, "Literature is οὔδε διδακτὸν οὔδε ἐξεταστὸν — neither teachable nor examinable. For more than two thousand years the most general basis of intellectual education has been found in the study of grammar; now the basis is philology." Professor Freeman says, "Literature apart from philology is unfit for examination. We cannot examine in tastes and sympathies." One is not surprised that the reaction from such pedantry has been extreme, even revolutionary; reforms seldom have the virtue of temperance. The advocates of the modern scientific method who worship utility, or the god of getting on in the world, treat the subject of literary study with a cold disdain. In all of this the significant fact for us is that these leaders of the reaction are in nearly every instance products of the old order of things; they find themselves after years of classical study, possessed of but little knowledge of literature or taste for it.

While the formalists are composing their Jeremiads against the revolutionists and the latter are poisoning their arrows with satire and invective, *litterae humaniores* stands between the lines destitute and hungry, a wanderer and an outcast. Is there no friendly shelter in the presence of whose warmth and joy she may recover her lost beauty and strength? While the war of words is being waged in such form as we find it in the article by Professor Earle in the last *Forum*, and in President Walker's last annual report, in the former of which the aim seems to be to demonstrate that the study of grammar, by which "language is laid alongside of the mind; and the study of philology by which it is laid alongside of the larynx," are of supreme importance in education; in the latter President

Walker says that he would resign his position if he thought the graduates of the School of Technology were not "better educated men, in all that term applies, than the average graduate of the ordinary college": — while this conflict is going on, let us turn to those who both by the written and spoken word have attempted to point us to the source of strength and health and joy. Professor Shairp says in one of his lectures on poetry at Oxford: "The true end of literary study is to awaken men to the divine side of things, to bear witness to the beauty that clothes the outer world, the nobility that lies hid, often obscured, in human souls, to call forth sympathy for neglected truths, to make men feel that, through all outward beauty and all pure inward affection God himself is addressing them." Professor Dowden says, "Our prime object should be to get into living relation with a man, and by this means, with the good forces of nature and humanity which play in and through him. This aim condemns at once all reading for pride and vain glory as wholly astray, and all reading for scholarship and specialized knowledge as partial and insufficient. We must read not for these, but for life; we must read in order to live. If our study does not enrich the life of man, it is but a weariness to the flesh, or at least a busy idleness."

Matthew Arnold says: "We should conceive of it (literature) as capable of higher uses, and called to higher destinies, than those which in general men have assigned to it hitherto. More and more mankind will discover that we have to turn to literature to interpret life for us, to console us, to sustain us. We shall find . . . that the art and poetry and eloquence of men who lived, perhaps long ago, who had the most limited natural knowledge, who had the most erroneous conceptions about many important matters, we shall find that this art and poetry and eloquence, have in fact not only the power of refreshing and delighting us, they have also the power, — such is the strength and worth in essentials of their author's criticism of life, — they have a fortifying, and elevating, and quickening, and suggestive power capable of wonderfully helping us to relate the results of modern science to our need for conduct, to our need for beauty."

Now what place should the translations of the ancient classics hold in our literary courses of the secondary schools? The pupils of our schools may be divided into three classes: College, Institute, and English. The first class we need not consider, inasmuch as their

work is solely in the direction of examination for entrance to college. The second and third classes, comprising those who will get no literary training after leaving our schools, need our special attention. We should attempt at least to give these such an education as will tend to perfect the whole nature; one that will result not so much in materials as in capacities, "leaving no great type of thought, no dominant phase of human life, wholly unknown." There is something wrong in our system if it allows these pupils to be ignorant of the great literary, ethical, and artistic impulses that have touched and quickened the life of the past and that still throb with an eternal vitality in the masterpieces of our own language.

Should not history, poetry, and philosophy hold the same relation to the education of these youth that it did to the youth of Athens and of Rome? Should we not turn our study of literature to the needs of a political, moral, and aesthetic culture; to enlarge, to stimulate, to refine; to free, arouse, dilate the life of the present? In these times when science is making one lobe of the brain Aristotelian and producing the half man "hopping about (as Mr. King says) on one leg," those of us who teach literature should see to it that the other lobe becomes Platonic. We do not think of allowing our pupils to go out from us without knowing something of the development of the ages as recorded in ancient, mediæval, and modern history; but what does general history mean to the pupil when it is separated from literature? It is at best but the body, of which literature is the soul. History as a narrative of facts is in time the child, not the parent, of literature. True history was first revealed in literature and literature inspired by great historic events; what was only a fact and would have been lost, was by the poet seized and raised to the dignity of a truth and became immortal. "The hero comes before the poet and is the greater of the two; for he is the poet in act, not in word alone. He does not lift up his voice, but he lifts up his being." Of such is the material of the Homeric poems, the acts of men —

> "Who went about their gravest deeds
> Like noble boys at play."

The simplicity, rapidity, and grandeur of Homer is the simplicity, rapidity, and grandeur of men of action. I would therefore have these pupils, when studying the early history of Greece, read Homer, breathe the air and feel the stimulus of this age of action and suffering for truth and justice. When reading the history of the Persian

wars I would have them study the drama of Aeschylus and Sophocles, that they may think the thoughts on Man, on Nature, and on Human Life that made Athens the mistress of the world in arms then, in arts, forever. In this way history will become vital, the pupil will see that the life of nations is organic, with growth, maturity and decay, the decay being only apparent not real, for a step in advance and he will be brought into contact with the Latins, and comparing the three periods in Roman literature with the three in the Greek, he will find poetry a late product and prose an early product of the times. On reading Virgil's Aeneid and the Roman drama, and comparing them with Homer and Greek drama, he will note readily and naturally the origin, form, and substance which distinguish the natural epos from the literary epos.

By this process he will find the seed from which mediæval and modern literature and art was produced. In the epos of Homer and Virgil are the germs of all epics; here are those principles of the story which have led to the modern novel of Scott, Hawthorne, and George Eliot. The drama of Greece is the parent of that of Rome, of the Mysteries of the middle ages and of our own Gothic drama.

What is true of epic, lyric and dramatic poetry is equally true of prose, whether in history, oratory, or criticism. These ancient models stand to our own literature in the same relation as do the old masters in painting, and sculpture to those of our own time. We do not think it impossible in our art schools to study from photographs and casts; why should we hesitate in our literary study to use translations? I am not now considering the relative value of the classics in the original and in the vernacular; but the value of them in the vernacular when the original is an impossibility. So do not understand me to be attempting to belittle the classics — on the contrary I hold that much more rational methods should prevail in their teaching so that they may be rid of the burden which the philologists have heaped upon them.

I believe that a more rational treatment of our pupils in literature will restore to us that vital connection with the old masterpieces. We have a wealth of translations in prose and verse; while painting, music, and the stage all combine to render them more vivid and lifelike. Let the pupil take the Homer by Lord Derby, Chapman, or Bryant, the drama by Morshead, Potter, or Plumtre, the lyrics by Milman and Myers, with the local color of Mahaffy, Butcher, Symonds, and Gladstone's Homeric studies and Haigh's Attic Theatre, and he is in the atmosphere and thought of Hellas, seeing what

the Greeks saw and feeling what they felt. When this is supplemented by Virgil, Horace and the Roman drama we have a panorama of ancient life at its best; its reflection and action; its comedy and its tragedy; its mighty music and its lofty visions; above all, its revelation of the universal in human life, or the great law of retribution, that "whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap." Such a course will be sure to lead to the epic of the middle ages, and with this impetus Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, and Milton will be studied as parts of one living whole, and the continuity of literature will become a fact of the greatest importance. Never again will literature seem the dead mechanic structure fit only to be analyzed and studied after scientific methods, but a living, organic whole to be understood by being enjoyed, to be appropriated by those who by a large sympathy are capable of possessing whatever has truth and seriousness in its subject, beauty and felicity in form.

The position which I have taken on this subject is the result of no speculation or theorizing, but of fifteen years of teaching English literature and of a careful study of the problem both here and in England. I had already begun the use of translations before I was able to study its results in the light of the English University Extension work. That study only assured and confirmed me in the belief that here was an opportunity to enlarge and edify. Professor Moulton at Cambridge, Professor Sidgwick at Oxford, and Mr. Churton Collins at London have attained surprising results with the use of translations, the first mentioned alone conducting classes in the ancient tragedy which reached a weekly average of over seven hundred. His advent at Chicago University in the fall will give a new stimulus to the work here. The results of the work in the Newton High School have been such as to interest a very large number of parents and friends of the pupils in the same work, and my private classes in the city of Newton have aggregated one hundred and twenty-five adults. Much of the success of this work in the school is due to the interest and enthusiasm which the master of the school has manifested in it, and it is just that I should make this acknowlment.

As to the method to be applied in this work I have nothing to say. I believe that a teacher thoroughly interested in the work will evolve his own method. There is no royal road to the interpretation of literature. We are all, if faithful in our work, in search of the universal principle of life and art — "quod semper, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus."

TEACHING ENGLISH.[*]

BYRON GROCE, LATIN SCHOOL, BOSTON.

MR. PRESIDENT: — May I, in beginning, be allowed to do a bit of gratuitous advertising? In the January number of that very able journal of secondary education, THE ACADEMY, appeared an article on "The Emphasis in the Teaching of English." It was intended as a mild and harmless article, and, in its original form, was written for a Rhode Island market, and was fairly pulled into the magazine by the ears, much against the author's wish. After it was printed the author felt proud to have it approved by many professors and school teachers, who kindly refrained from mentioning the English errors in it, not all of which, the writer regretted to know, were the fault of the printer.

Happy in the quiet reception his article had met, the author was congratulating himself upon having stated in a satisfactory way the quite unanimous opinion of teachers upon an old theme, when he received this note from one in authority among us: —

"Your position that the emphasis of English teaching is to be placed on composition is one to which many teachers, I think, will be inclined to take exception. You have thrown a gauntlet and made an excellent opening for a discussion. You are the only one who can set the topic forth as a friend and advocate. I fancy it would be easy to find some one — or many — to take it in hand as an opponent, but I am strongly of the opinion that this innovation should be introduced for discussion by a believer and holder of it. I want to engage you definitely to lead this proposition with a paper on our programme, that it may be discussed as freshly issuing from the mind of its originator."

I throw down a gauntlet? I an innovator? I the only one to defend the principles offered? The woods full of men anxious to get at my scalp?

I felt like Bob Acres pushed on by Sir Lucius O'Trigger to a duel. "I throw down a gauntlet? Let me pick it up again. It is a mistake. It just dropped of itself. I an innovator? Farthest from my thoughts! I an only one? Not at all; I want to be in the woods with the rest of the good fellows. I take it all back: in fact I never said it. At any rate, I didn't mean it, and if I did I've

[*] See page 228.

changed my mind. If my pistol hit anybody, I didn't know it was loaded, and I will promise not to fire again." These were my thoughts, but Sir Lucius held me up like a wall, and now forces me to stand out, pistol in hand, ready to give and take fire, though I have n't any malice, don't know an opponent I have in the world, and can't see a man in the woods whose ear I want to shoot off, or whose lungs I would willingly puncture.

However, the call of this letter sounds so like "Say it again if you dare" that I cannot shut my ears to it; I am so much a boy as to be unwilling to "take a dare," even though I know the purpose of the writer in asking me to speak is to provide a mark for you to fire at; is, in fact, just to give a chance for discussion. But I have nothing new to say, and the few who have read the article I have referred to will probably feel that what I have now to present is like warmed-over tea, very weak. Perhaps it would have been better to read that article again, but I have chosen, rather, to reiterate some of its points in a hasty review; I hope my talk may serve its only purpose and furnish a target for unknown opponents, and draw them out from cover.

When we speak of teaching English what do we mean? Do we mean teaching English philology? Do we mean English literary history? English literature? or English composition? Or do we mean teaching a little of each, or a little about each:

The question concerns *prescribed* work in public high and classical schools. Shall we give our pupils knowledge *about* English, knowledge about its language or its history; or shall we teach them to know the literature, to enjoy English, and be profited and uplifted by it; or shall we teach them to *use* English? If all these ends are in some measure desirable, which of them shall we choose for our main one? It is probable that in seeking any one of these objects we need not wholly put aside the others, but can there be any question that the ability to use the English language is the most important one of these objects, and that, in seeking it as the main thing, all the others fall into most helpful relations to it?

Since 1873, — nearly twenty years ago, — most of the New England colleges have required English of their entering candidates. The requirement is, in brief, the ability to write correctly and clearly upon one of several subjects taken from about two or three thousand pages of the best English, which the student is expected to have

read; and, in addition, the ability to correct specimens of bad English.

The emphasis is upon composition,—the ability to use English. I think the colleges put the emphasis where it belongs. Not only is the ability to use English well the most precious acquirement a young person can have as a preparation for a higher course of study, but it is the most precious acquirement a high school graduate can have for the work of life, and I have been amazed that the impetus the college requirement has given to good English work in special fitting schools has not been more strongly felt by the mixed high schools. It has always seemed to me that the makers of high school programmes could do no better service in their schools than to have the regular high school pupils do the same work in English that is done by those fitting for college in the same school. It is much to be desired, also, that, where high schools and separate fitting schools exist, the high school should do the same work in English that the fitting school does. In the mixed schools, such a plan would make classification less difficult than it is, and would make it easier for a student who decided late in his course to go to college, to put himself on the right road. It is desirable to multiply points of unity between the high school work and the fitting school work, for I suppose we are all coming to the opinion that the course of study in high schools which is best adapted to fit a student for business and for life, is, on the whole, good enough to be extended and expanded in a college; is, in other words, good enough to be a satisfactory fit for college.

Now, perhaps the colleges are wrong in emphasizing the side of English they do emphasize. They now require of their students ability to express themselves with correctness and clearness, and they expect their students to get this ability through, or at least with, the reading of much good literature. I do not remember ever hearing this requirement objected to. I have heard the methods of examination, the list of books, and other details criticised with more or less severity, but never the basis of the test.

Nevertheless, though I have not perhaps so wide a knowledge of the work of high schools as most of you, I am convinced that our high schools and even our fitting schools do still put the emphasis, not upon expression, but upon reading,—not upon composition, but upon literature. I think there can be no question that, as Professor Hill says, "an acquaintance with the English classics" is "an

important if not an indispensable means of acquiring the art of expressing one's thoughts thoroughly well," but it is not a sufficient means. I have said elsewhere that good authors may be made to furnish material, model, and inspiration for the best expression, and thus become the best helps to composition; and I have always said that the first thing to do with pupils was to have them read much; indeed, I should have but one other main direction for pupils, and that is, to write much. To very many teachers this should be said: "You meddle too much with your pupils' reading, and altogether too little with their writing." I suspect the reason is that this is the easier way; for, if there is one thing more dreadful than a pile of composition books to be corrected, it is — a second pile of such books; and to see these piles stretch on to the crack of doom is an incentive to — the teaching of literature! The result is that even literature is not always well taught. It becomes an omnibus full of dead men's bones, to be dragged by the pupil, and not a Pegasus winged with inspiration to bear him through the earth-clouds into a heavenly atmosphere. "All I want is to be let alone," might well be the cry of many an English classic most foully hacked and hewed, drawn and quartered, that the forced curiosity of pupils may make them see the anatomy even though they destroy the life. I thank heaven for one thing in my early school life. I was not made to understand everything I went over.

I do not wish to be misunderstood. What I object to is the exhaustive method, in Latin or English or in any other prescribed high school subject. It is always the exhausting method. Our false notions of what constitutes thoroughness have much to answer for. Pretty pieces of information are good; but what if, while seeking them, the fire on the altar of our worship goes out? If the fire does not go out, but burns steadily, then all is well and even information may be useful.

But, to return to my main thought, it is the seeming ease with which we may teach literature, and the drudgery necessary in teaching composition, that cause so many pupils to stand in the slops of the former and perish for thirst of the latter. "Water, water, everywhere, nor any drop to drink."

In the study of English then, our objective point should be the power of expression, and we should study English masterpieces as aids to this, if for no other purpose. But composition work is all important, and this work we have neglected. English is, for many

reasons, the hardest subject of all to teach, but chiefly because of its indefiniteness. Its limits are not known. We may teach and teach into the great ocean of English and never sight land, and, indeed, be all at sea. Literature teaching greatly lacks "pedagogic tangibility." To settle upon power of expression gained through literature as our "dead objective," is to aid our teaching at once, since it must focus our scattered labors and make the parts of our work have clear relation to each other and to a main end.

I am sure "a hopefully achievable end" is, that at seventeen or eighteen years of age boys — and girls even earlier — may be taught to write with correctness and clearness what they know and think. I say, may be taught to write what they know and think. *What* they know and think at the age of seventeen is not a subject for present discussion. Our question is, how can they be taught to express well what they know and think? It is a habit of correct and clear writing that we want, not merely the possibility of such writing for exhibition days.

First of all, it goes without saying that a habit of correct writing will not come from occasional writing; and it is folly to expect pupils to write correctly in their occasional formal compositions if they are permitted to write incorrectly in their frequent translations, examinations, short exercises, paper and black-board labors, or to speak incorrectly in their oral recitations. The three or more hours per week in which care and strictness reign may, indeed, accomplish something even when set against the ninety or more waking hours outside of school in which, too often, worse than carelessness reigns; but let the three hours per week be increased to twenty-five through the coöperation of every department of instruction, and the prospect becomes much more hopeful. I suppose the teachers of other languages have it in their power to be more helpful to the English teacher than any others can be, but all teachers should teach English.

But, secondly, in addition to this general English instruction by everybody with the view to fix and confirm habits of correct English, there is the work done in the special time set apart for English. Let us suppose this time is at least three hours per week for all the years of the course, and it should not be less than this. I take it that just here is a difficulty with many teachers; they cannot, or think they cannot, get three hours per week for English. They must; they can if they will, and they will if they will stop worshipping

false gods, and will truly believe in their household gods. Believe me, the other things will not suffer so much as you think. That pet Latin, or pet geometry, or pet science will thrive in the sunshine of good English.

And thirdly, when forced by the cry of the college, the press, and the intelligent public, you make the place for English, who shall teach it? Certainly it should not be taught by one who teaches another subject nine-tenths of his time and can put only the fag end of his energy into English, and must, almost of necessity, measure its importance in comparison with his other topic by comparing the hours of each; nor by a teacher who does not believe in the subject or wish to magnify it, or who has not time and will to make much of it even through some drudgery; certainly not by a teacher who writes or speaks in a slovenly manner, or who is color-blind in literature, — certainly by none of these, if you wish English taught in the ideal way. But alas for our ideals! We teachers are not entire masters of the situation; yet if we could agree among ourselves, we should be more nearly masters of it than we think. It is possible for masters of schools to get the time, and place the emphasis so that pupils shall recognize a solid entity in English, not a mush of flabbiness in the midst of real things, but a department the peer of any other. When pupils, and teachers of other subjects respect the English department and do not dare elbow it into a corner or out of doors altogether, there will be hope.

Given then, coöperation, time, and energetic, believing teachers, what shall be done? When the good fairies give this latest Cinderella her prince's throne instead of her ash-heap corner, how shall she help to rule her little kingdom?

Though the least worthy among my fellow teachers here, it occasionally happens to me as, doubtless, it frequently happens to you, to receive from some earnest young educator a letter, usually addressed to me as "Professor," and rarely containing a stamp for return postage, asking me to tell the writer how I teach this or that. These letters almost always ask me to tell my method "briefly." I have often felt inclined to reply, "I have no method"; for certainly I have none which I can tell briefly, — and pay return postage. At any rate, I did not know I had any ready-made method till I was asked to tell it, and then I went and made one; but I found I could not myself live up to it. My methods, I find, are like my clothes, custom-made. They fit me. I have a peculiar shape. On another fellow they might bag in the waist and expose his ankles. But if

he likes my general style, I suppose I can tell him some of the principles upon which my method is cut, and something about the quality, cost, and durability of my goods; but he must know that different styles are for different service, and that methods like garments must change with the change of seasons, and must yield somewhat to the demands of fashion; at least they should not be persisted in when they are displeasing and wearisome. Nor, on the other hand, should methods be haphazard things; they should be growths, varying with the individual teacher and with the individual pupil, too. Of course they start in the germ of universal principles, but they grow by a law of variation.

The germ principle for composition is *fit faber fabricando*, learn to do in doing. The pupil is to be set to writing. He must write a little very often. He may write upon what he is reading, or upon other subjects, provided he knows or thinks about them. He may write at home and rewrite at school, either with or without the use of his home writing, or he may write off-hand, either with or without previous notice of his subject. Write he must, a half dozen lines, a page, a chapter, just as often as the teacher can examine *and teach the principles involved in the corrections*. One composition well-taught, rewritten, — several times if necessary, — is worth a dozen merely marked and handed back. Success or failure in composition teaching, is, I believe, determined largely by the work done by pupil and teacher after the composition is returned with corrections; and this handing back is the point at which both teacher and pupil too often stop. I believe that a determined student may learn to write well by reading and writing much, with care, even without a teacher, just as he could learn Latin without a teacher. But the undetermined pupil, — whose name is majority, — must be taught.

For teaching purposes frequent short exercises are better than long ones, for they bring teacher and pupil together oftener and keep up the heat. I believe that most of the work should be done under the eye of the teacher. It is better to read the required books at home and write in school, than to write at home and read in school: but there is no reason why both reading and writing may not be done in both places, provided there is careful oversight to make sure of original work.

I find that it is easiest to get at the real facts of a boy's English by short exercises that he does not call compositions. When he is off duty he shows his slouch, avoided when he is on dress parade.

With girls it is easy to teach composition if one can get their confidence. They write well with much less teaching than boys need. The teacher must win the confidence of boys, too. Girls are shy, but boys are too often stolid and need to be waked up, and, moreover, they lack grace and natural fluency in expression, and their speech is more corrupted than that of girls. But longer exercises, — compositions, — must be required, not indeed, to work out the mere mechanism of expression and "hide poverty of thought in finish of style," as Professor Hill phrases it, but to "help the pupil make what he has to say tell for all it is worth."

When the teacher has read these papers, short or long, he knows in what his pupils need instruction, and his first business will be to set the pupil to instructing himself; the teacher will do this by indicating errors, not by correcting them. The subsequent lesson in correcting is an important lesson for the pupil to study. He may be guided by principles learned in his previous reading and writing. Let him work, under guidance, for the removal of all obstacles that hinder the clearest expression of his thought; and in removing obstacles let him learn why they hinder and how to avoid them, always keeping in view that it is for the sake of the thought that he needs clear expression; and thus he will be led to seek for thoughts worth taking pains to express.

It will appear, then, that I believe the power of written expression to be the main, though not the only, object in the study of English; that this object is best gained through much reading and particularly through much writing; that emphasis should be put on composition work, which is neglected in too many high schools; that there must be not only much composition *writing* but much composition *teaching*, and that it is composition teaching which is most likely to be slighted.

If I were asked whether, in composition teaching, composition manuals were desirable, I should answer that in my opinion that depends upon how they are used. It is better for teacher and pupil to develop principles in the composition laboratory than to have them imposed from the outside. A manual of exercises, or of classified examples, may be very useful, especially for class work and as a labor-and-time-saving machine. And, indeed, a manual of principles, if these have been developed through abundant exercises, may be very useful. But the study of the manuals must not take the place of frequent writing, nor must principles be considered fixed till they are habitually applied in practice.

*THE MATHEMATICAL PREPARATION FOR COLLEGE.**

TRUMAN H. SAFFORD, WILLIAMS COLLEGE.

COLLEGE teaching of mathematics is undergoing a great change. Our universities, old and new, of the highest rank, have gone very far in their elective work; this course has been made necessary by the enormous modern development of the subject. One needs only to look into a mathematical library and see the stately rows of volumes of the great journals, and the collected works of the ablest authors, to see how immense this development has been; and it has not been confined to advanced subjects. Gauss's writings, for example, are full of light upon the matters taught in the old college course: there are in them very simple and important new theorems in algebra, trigonometry, the conic sections; and other writers have put an entirely new face upon ordinary geometry. Our younger professors are now expected to take special courses of instruction in the higher mathematics. When they come back from these courses they are eager to diffuse the new light they have received. They offer electives in difficult subjects, perhaps unheard of half a century ago; and, as a rule, find few students who are deeply interested in pure mathematics for its own sake.

There are more young men who find they need it for its practical applications in the physical sciences. The growth of laboratory teaching in our colleges has been enormous; the pupil who is brought face to face with nature is, as we all know, more definitely held to precision and accuracy than the one who merely studies text-books. The pedagogic principle of going to nature for our training is rapidly becoming acknowledged as a sound one; and the pupil so trained soon finds mathematics in its newer forms indispensable.

For example, in astronomy, the methods introduced by Gauss and Bessel, which differ greatly from those of the older school, have shown much more practical results; their mathematics is nearer that of nature herself. These methods have gradually passed over into practical physics so that we often see men successful as meteorolo-

* See page 228.

gists or electricians whose college studies in practical astronomy first enabled them to work with modern precision.

College instruction in mathematics is changing, then, not only in height of requirement but in form; and there is always a difference in method among teachers of various grades which produces a waste of labor. Even in the colleges themselves it is not easy to adjust the mathematics with the physics and astronomy so that the former shall prepare the students to undertake the latter; and it is usually found that the text-book in algebra, geometry, conic sections and trigonometry employ older methods than the physical professors have adopted. It is troublesome to the latter to teach mathematics over again. We may say in general terms that our mathematical text-books are not much in advance of the French books of the early part of the century; they have latterly shown indications of the adoption of modern English fashions, which are a little less antiquated.

If such is the case in the colleges, we cannot fairly blame the preparatory schools for a similar conservatism. Their work is largely adapted to the entrance examinations at Harvard, Yale, and other great institutions. The pressure of these requirements upon the high schools is very sensible; and the high school teachers, in many cases excellent educators, are in the position of the Israelites required to make bricks without straw, when we ask more of them than to get their pupils into college. The time allowed them is far too short to accomplish the higher object of training the young men to do well the work in college, so far as it depends on their preparation. The weaker scholars naturally choose the easier electives. In many cases they might (if their preparation had been thorough and fundamental enough) interest themselves in physics and then in mathematics as a necessary tool; it often happens in our college elective classes that a pupil chooses mathematics who was too slow in the preparatory school to do his work well under the circumstances.

In other words the high school course in algebra and geometry is far too short for modern requirements; only the quicker scholars get the full benefit of it, and these young men are sometimes frivolous and careless when they grow older.

The present report then deals with the question how more time is to be gained to lay the proper foundation in the elementary subjects.

The four years course in the high school or endowed academy is occupied with so many subjects, and the requirements are so varied,

that teachers are compelled to devote themselves to the immediate object. They can get their pupils safely past the entrance examinations with few or no conditions: but cannot at the same time guarantee much more. The incoming freshman can go on in his higher algebra, his solid geometry, his trigonometry, and perhaps gain some strength in fundamental conceptions at the same time; but would it not be better that he should have laid his foundation at the proper time?

Let us quote the Austrian method as one which accomplishes the result. Its especial merit is that when it was adopted, some twenty years ago, a thorough reorganization was effected. The schools were taken out of the priests' hands, and put into those of lay teachers; and eminent Protestant school men were called in from Prussia to give counsel. And this Austrian scheme is well thought of by eminent educators in Europe, as one well-planned and good theoretically.

There has been during the past generation a great advance in the practical mathematics in that country.

The gymnasia and realschulen occupy in our subject the ground of American high school preparation and (roughly speaking) the freshman year. The course is of eight years and seven, respectively. These eight or seven years begin at the minimum age of ten, averaging I imagine about twelve. During the first two of these years arithmetic and geometry are taught; during the second two, algebra, higher arithmetic, and geometry. The gymnasia (corresponding to our classical courses) differ from the realschulen in several respects, one of which is that the latter give more hours to mathematics partly under the name of "geometrical drawing;" but in the lower classes it is practically the same thing as is taught in the gymnasia as geometry. Let us consider then the Austrian boy's four mathematical years which precede the age of sixteen.

The course is, so far as arithmetic is concerned, not unlike ours for two years; vulgar and decimal fractions, denominate numbers, weights and measures, rule of three, percentage, simple interest and discount. Then follow in the third year, square and cube root and the fundamental principles of algebra; and for the fourth, equations of the first degree, compound rule of three, chain rule, compound interest.

Mensuration is made a part of geometry, which is studied *all four* years; the time is equally divided between the two subjects. But

this is not demonstrative geometry. Both subjects, arithmetic or algebra (the two are really one) and geometry are scientifically taught only in the later four years; during the earlier four the work is mainly practical, with the same kind of reasoning that we employ in the arithmetic of concrete numbers only.

In other words the Austrian pupils are for four years learning practical geometry and mensuration, and for the latter two of them, elementary algebra, in the place of much which we call arithmetic.

It is of course quite impossible in this country to introduce the Austrian system. But the evident lesson which this Association can derive from it and other like continental methods is that the pressure upon our preparatory schools can be relieved by the grammar departments. The fact is that the writers and teachers of arithmetics in this country have held to past ideas too long. There is more mental discipline and more practical result in the foreign methods for these ages than in ours. We neglect geometry altogether too much in our common schools; we set algebraic examples to our pupils and require them to be done without algebraic notation; higher arithmetic is a difficult and worrying subject, not practical, not a good introduction to mechanical trades or to business; and the so-called mental discipline which it supplies is far better given by the more tangible subject of inductive and practical geometry; while the few business examples which involve indirect methods can be thoroughly well accomplished by a little algebra.

This inductive geometry is recommended by mathematicians of the highest reputation, Jacobi and our own Peirce. It is no good pedagogy, says Jacobi, to begin demonstrative geometry without it. Says Peirce, in his preface to Mrs. C. R. Lowell's "Introduction to Geometry," "It avoids tedious demonstrations, develops the taste for observation, and leads the pupil to a real and practical knowledge of the truths of geometry with a rapidity which would not have been anticipated."

Jacobi's friend Steiner, one of the greatest pure geometers of this century, was himself a pupil and teacher in Pestalozzi's school; and his deep and original geometrical studies, with their surprising results, grew directly out of his experiences there.

It is precisely the science of form, which can only be taught by inductive and practical exercises at a comparatively early age, that is most lacking in college students. They fail to grasp the truths of the higher geometry, of astronomy, or mechanics; because in

their minds the basis and the fundamental conceptions are lacking. The college teacher has again and again to go back and explain these simple things which should be enforced, just as the methods of dealing with simple fractions or denominate numbers are enforced, in the common schools. The introduction of practical problems in geometry, inductively treated, into these schools is thus an admirable mental training, according to the views of the best educators; it is excellent for these boys who are to work with their hands, as any one can see; and it is called for by eminent mathematicians as a means of facilitating the teaching of the higher subjects. Even the the mathematicians admit that practical geometry *without demonstrative* is an extremely valuable possession; the pupil who leaves school with it, before the higher work is begun, has not only received training but a practical form of knowledge.

It seems then that the difficulties in the way of mathematical teaching in the college preparatory schools will be much relieved, if the grammar school authorities can be induced to give inductive geometry and elementary algebra their rightful place in the courses. This can be but slowly accomplished. It can be helped by the study on the part of the teachers of the "modern geometry." The late movement in favor of more original demonstration in schools is excellent, as far as it goes; indispensable in fact; but it requires to be joined with a much more thorough and careful study of form than the text-books indicate. Does any sane person suppose that if Euclid or Archimedes were to reappear upon earth he would fail to be interested in the work of Poncelet or Steiner?

The "modern geometry" has expanded our ideas far beyond the framework of Euclid's Elements, or even Legendre's Geometry; but it is well worth while for any teacher to study the few propositions which Chauvenet added to his geometry, ending with the solution of Apollonius's problem: to draw a circle tangent to three given circles. These few theorems apply, in large part, to all the conic sections, by simple projection; and produce astonishing results in the hands of Chasles and Steiner. The Austrians have introduced them into the body of their text-books; the one in which we have seen them is very largely employed, is published in very numerous editions, in many languages, and included them nearly thirty years ago. Were the inductive geometry well taught in our grammar schools, the high schools would have no difficulty in adding these few theorems to their courses of plane geometry, to the great benefit of college instruction.

Aside from the fact that algebra is often made to precede any study of geometry, there is little that is unfavorable to be said about high school teaching in algebra. It is usually well done except in small country places. Algebra has been a favorite study; and the modern tendency in colleges is to make its higher branches elective. The "theory of equations" is rather too wide a subject for a required course, and is better replaced by more concrete matter. Algebraic *demonstration* is more called for at the girls' colleges than at the boys'; is it possibly shirked by our young men?

College students, even those who elect mathematics, are a little mechanical in their methods of work; and the hurry of the preparatory courses seems to tend towards mechanical solution of problems. It is difficult to explain the elements of the calculus to a pupil who has not been used to ask a reason of himself for every algebraic process he employs. To gain time for more demonstrative work in elementary algebra is the object of lengthening the course in that subject.

As before stated the heuristic method in geometry is an excellent one. It will succeed better and better if the rudiments are taught beforehand by the inductive method; it is a great saving of time also to diminish the number of standard propositions to be memorized, and rely upon the developed power of demonstration for the remainder. But in selecting the matter to teach there is a difficulty which is getting more and more sensible; the theorems of ordinary geometry are so numerous that we need to know very thoroughly what are the most important; and this knowledge can only be gained by a careful study of the higher parts of the subject, whether they belong to the traditional school course or not.

The high schools, especially around Boston and in the principal cities in other states, are doing excellent work in mathematical preparation; the chief defects are in the foundations supplied by the schools below them. These are also doing good work in a certain sense; but they appear to have their own standards, which refer rather to the working of their system, as a perfect tool for general training. At present, however, young men are needed in all departments of human activity who have more specialized methods and habits; and there is no doubt that specialized education renders its recipients happier in their inner life and more practical in their external relations to the world. In mathematics, for example, the highly artificial subject of higher arithmetic in the American sense

of the term, ought to give way to the algebra and inductive geometry which is more agreeable to mathematicians and advanced educators. "Higher arithmetic" is mathematics of the schools, not of outside life.

It is not invidious to say that, in a time of great progressive activity, there are obstinate conservatives who are inclined to resist all changes. They will maintain that a training which was the best attainable in this country half a century ago, is still the fittest for the age of steam and electricity.

The college requirements have long exercised a heavy pressure on the preparatory schools, and the authorities in charge of these have generally yielded. But the pressure must be in good part transmitted to the schools below, in order to accomplish the best work above; if it is not possible to gain several years for the elements of the high school studies by lengthening the course downward, these elements must be taught in one way or another in the grammar schools; and the mathematical subjects furnish the easiest department in which to make a beginning.

If the movement in favor of Latin schools can succeed in developing others like the Boston Latin school, with a *six* years course, there will certainly be great progress; but I have no doubt the grammar masters object to giving up good scholars as early as the Latin school requires them, and no farther doubt that many of them still cling to their beloved "higher arithmetic" as it is now taught.

There is one difficulty for which the colleges seem to be responsible. They have pretty generally adopted the method of examination used at Cambridge, England (by printed papers only), and this is not quite satisfactory. The better way, to combine written and oral work, would enable the examiners to find out how far the candidate had mastered the rudiments of the subject; as for instance form applied to solid geometry; or to test his quickness in seeing approximate numerical relations. The worst faults our collegians exhibit are those which relate to so rudimentary matters that they cannot be tested in a purely written examination. The colleges have by their examinations been better able to test and guide the work of the high schools, than they have to find out whether the actual foundation of their students' minds is satisfactory. This neglect to ascertain thoroughly what the students are, has made the work of college instructors much harder.

Let us sum up in a few words. College mathematics is progressing, and must continue to do so; college requirements must gradu-

ally increase in severity, not because professors are arbitrary, but because they cannot help themselves; and as old men give way to younger ones the general standard will be raised. The high schools in their turn must raise their requirements; and these must be met by the lower institutions, not by prolonging the age of education, but by employing the elements of geometry and algebra in place of such difficult examples in arithmetic, by a concentration of mathematical thinking such as has long been applied in the science itself and in the schools of nearly all other civilized countries. Nothing impossible or very difficult is here asked for, but only that all grades of teachers (college professors included), shall work together in an intelligent or philosophical way, rather than in an empirical manner. It is no more justifiable for the colleges to examine by empirical methods than for teachers to instruct by them.

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*CIVICS BY THE PARLIAMENTARY METHOD.**

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FOUR years ago I had the honor of reading a paper at the meeting of this Association in which I raised the query, "Are we educating the whole boy?" The aim of the paper then was to show that with all the variety of studies in secondary schools, there was practically but one method of pursuing them; and that a method which overworks one mental faculty but gives little or no training to others where it is most needed.

It must not be overlooked that the mental training does not depend on the study, but on the method by which the student pursues it, hence it is the first duty of a teacher to understand the aim in what he teaches, and adapt his method to accomplish that aim. In this respect much progress has been made within the last fifteen years, and it is pleasant to know it even if it comes slowly. It was a great gratification to the Israelites that the ark of the covenant was at length moving towards Jerusalem from the house of Abinadab where it had so long rested, though drawn but with the speed of your conservative ox. And yet even this speed seemed dangerous to some of them.

* See page 228.

But though something has been done, much still remains to be done in the way of diversifying methods and so broadening the training. It is the first claim of each system of physical culture that it develops the whole physique symmetrically, and unless the claim can be established the system is not considered good. In education there should be a similar aim; namely, to diversify the methods so as to train all the intricate faculties of that wonderful instrument that we call the mind.

This theory of education every one assents to. The merest tyro in teaching will defend a diversified course on the ground of its diversified training. The right theory has got into our heads long ago; it is practice that's the laggard. The reason is found in the widely prevalent fallacy, that in learning what others have worked out or thought out, the pupil is getting the mental exercise involved in the original process. For example, if he reads an abundant supply of explanatory notes, he is exercising discernment and taste in literature; if he is memorizing demonstrations in geometry, he is reasoning; and if he listens to a clear explanation from a teacher of physics or chemistry who tells him just what to see and believe, he is acquiring a habit of investigation, and learning to observe and compare. Pushing the idea (if it may be dignified by such a name) to its logical conclusion, it would follow that memorizing books of instruction will make a skillful violinist.

I believe that this fallacy is the bottom cause of all our worst methods of teaching. It certainly is the prevalent notion among people at large, but teachers should be beyond such an error if any psychological truth has ever penetrated their heads. A course of study will supply a full training of the faculties only when its methods are properly adapted to such an end, and it is in this line that reform is most pressingly needed. We have heard a great deal of late about enriching school courses, but in my opinion it is not *courses* so much as *methods* that need the enriching.

As a means to this end I desire to urge the introduction and systematic use in secondary schools and colleges, of what I will take the liberty to call the parliamentary method. I do not know how the meaning and utility of the method can be better set forth than by quoting what De Mille says in his admirable work on rhetoric under the heading, Parliamentary Debate.

"The form of parliamentary debate is modern. It was created and developed in England. It was born in the English Parliament

and has spread thence to other parliaments and also to other public assemblies which have no connection with politics. So useful is it that it is employed even where there is no debate proper, but only discussion; where speakers agree upon the question and consider it, not from contrary, but from different points of view. This is illustrated by the 'speeches to the question' at the meeting of any society.

"The aim of parliamentary debate is to investigate the subject from many points of view which are presented from two contrary sides. In no other way can a subject be so exhaustively considered.

"A parliamentary debate when carried on by able men, is one of the finest exhibitions of the powers of the human mind that can be witnessed.

"We see well-informed and well-trained intellects turning all their powers to the discussion of a subject from many points of view, in which two opposite forces struggle for the victory. In such a struggle all the highest intellectual forces are put forth. We encounter broad and deep knowledge, quick apprehension, argumentative power, great command of language, together with all the resources of wit, humor, and pathos."

What Mr. De Mille here enumerates as the faculties brought into play in such a debate, are the faculties trained by the parliamentary method for which I am arguing. The practical importance of such a discipline must be apparent to all.

Continuing, Mr. De Mille says: "Debate is of more importance than formerly, since there is a larger audience. This is the result of a free parliament and press. The members of parliament represent the people to discuss, but the reporters of the press represent the people to listen. Thus the whole nation is present to debate and to harken by proxy."

Let me also quote from a book entitled the School-Room Guide, by E. V. De Graff. Of what he calls the discussion method, Mr. De Graff says:

"Briefly and pointedly pupils present their arguments in favor of their respective positions. Criticisms are urged and answered. Every point is sharply contested. The reasons for and against are carefully weighed.

"Educationally the discussion method stands high. It is like the interest excited in debate; in these mental conflicts, the utmost power of the pupil is put forth.

"There is no better way to cultivate independence, self-assertion, liberality, and the habit of treating an opponent courteously and fairly. The discussion method supplements the Socratic and topic methods. It breaks up monotony, dissipates stupidness and insipidity.

"From the primary school to the university this method may be used with incalculable advantage; but in all cases it must be kept well under the control and direction of the teacher.

"Perhaps there is no method that will excite greater interest than this rational method. There is less examining, less artificial training and more solid development. The discussion method is preëminently the method to make thinking men and women."

It would be an easy task, if the limits of this paper permitted, to swell its pages with personal testimonials of those who have succeeded in deliberative assemblies, as to the value they have derived from their early association with some debating society, among them those kings of debaters, Webster and Lincoln.

Before the deluge of cheap books and newspapers, these societies were a somewhat intermittent, it is true, but nevertheless useful feature of New England village life during its long and tedious winters, and many a country school house could furnish interesting stories of rural eloquence within its walls of a winter evening. These discussions in a modified form still live in the meetings of the farmers' grange and other labor organizations throughout the country. These societies, too, were a prominent feature of college life in days gone by, but existed as voluntary associations of interested students, and not by any effort of the college or recognition in its curriculum.

The weakness in all these societies was the aimless and rambling nature of the discussions, the absence of proper parliamentary usage and courtesy, a sensitiveness to healthful criticism on points of language and logic, and finally a lack of adhesion to the subject in hand. The results, therefore, were rather lean.

I am aware that in many schools debates are now occasionally gotten up on some question of history perhaps, but they are mostly for diversion, and generally have about all the faults just mentioned, with others *sui generis*. It is not for this slovenly, desultory debate that I am pleading, but for the debate or discussion as a means of systematically developing some branch of study, fully under the control of the teacher, and demanding careful preparation, and an exact

observance of parliamentary usages and rhetorical principles; where a breach in these respects, or the misuse of English will be deemed as deserving of correction, as a slip in Latin syntax now is. But what I have called the parliamentary method means something more than a series of debates.

A considerable part of the work of the students will be to prepare and make written reports on special topics. From time to time short addresses also should be introduced, calculated to arouse interest and stimulate investigation. Preferably these addresses should be delivered by the teacher, the first of them at any rate, and they should be clear, logical, and pointed. Of course the contents of the reports should always be thrown open for discussion. First of all the class should be organized as a deliberative assembly with the teacher as presiding officer. The recitation will be chiefly devoted to the presentation by the students of their views, and each should be encouraged to give his own conclusions, fortified by facts. The teacher, however, should not be merely a presiding officer. He should hold the attention of the class closely to the subject in hand, and keep the speaker from rambling. If he does this persistently the scholars will not only be gathering knowledge, but will be forming correct ideas and habits of debate, a far greater good than mere information.

But is there a study that can be developed in this way? If, as is claimed, the school is a preparation for life, it certainly should have a branch of study adapted to train for every activity that can be needed. For the purpose in hand civics is especially adapted in the secondary school, and political economy in the college. In civics, as in other sciences, it is important that we keep in mind the distinction between the art and the philosophy. By the art of government is meant a practical acquaintance with its forms and details, which would qualify one to manage any part of it, from calling a caucus to presiding over a house of congress; by the philosophy, an understanding of the history of political progress and of those underlying principles which are constantly compelling changes in forms and details. Attaching undue importance to the former produces the politician, to the latter, the radical; a just regard for both, the statesman.

My criticism on the prevailing mode of treating civics is that it is too much, — I might almost say exclusively, — confined to the art. In the narrow and superficial treatment of the subject, the school is

only teaching the pupil what at the proper time he would pick up for himself from experience, and is therefore devoting time to the needless work of teaching nestlings to fly. If the school does not develop in its pupils a disposition to study into those fundamental principles that in the hustling life (especially American life) are likely to be overlooked, it will be making a poor return for the time and money it costs.

Another objection is that when a partial phase of a science is taught to the young, it is apt to leave on their minds the impression that it is the whole, or, at least, the most important part of that science. This is especially true in civics, and an undue attention to forms is in a measure responsible for the fact that in this country, where the study of economic and civic questions is supposed to be well-nigh universal, the legislatures contain a hundred politicians to one statesman; a hundred, for example, who know the way to assess and collect taxes, to one who knows the principles of taxation; or, for that matter, that taxation has any principles unless that of Donnybrook Fair.

It is the underlying *why* that the parliamentary method is especially suited to bring out, and not only is the mental food acquired in this way well digested and assimilated, but habits of thought are formed of inestimable value.

In what I have said of the art of government I shall not, I hope, be understood as disapproving of that phase of the study entirely. Both the art and the history of civil government will still be an important part of the work and will furnish topics for committee reports, addresses, etc.

The next thing necessary is to divide the subject into suitable topics for the progressive development of it. How this can be done, is shown by the following examples.

STUDIES IN CIVICS.

Government in General.

I. What is government? Why is a government needed?

SUBORDINATE INQUIRY. — If everybody was good would a government be needed?

SOURCES OF INFORMATION. — 1. Your own knowledge of government as experienced in schools, at home, in your town, etc. 2. Cy of Pol. Sci., Government. 3. Mowry's St. in Civ. Gov., pp. 1–2. 4. Martin's Civ. Gov., pp. 11–16. 5. Fiske's Civ. Gov. in the U. S., pp. 1–7.

ADDRESSES. — A. Origin and Development of Government — B. Difference between Civil and Military Governments.

The Objects of Government.

I. DISCUSSION. — What are the legitimate objects of government?

SOURCES OF INFORMATION. — The Preamble to the Constitution of the United States. 2. The Preamble to the Constitution of Massachusetts. 3. Mowry's Studies in Civ. Gov., pp. 9–13. 4. Dickinson's Our Republics, pp. 21–24. 5. Martin's Civ. Gov., pp. 31–39.

SUBORDINATE INQUIRIES. — A. Are all the aims set forth in the Preamble to the Constitution of the United States, general aims? B. Are they there given in the order of their historical prominence? C. Can you add to the number there given?

II. SUPPLEMENTARY DISCUSSIONS. — From the position you have taken as to the objects of government, discuss the following questions: The right of government

1. To make education compulsory and tax everyone for its support.
2. To forbid the employment in factories, mines, stores, etc., of children under a certain age.
3. To forbid individuals from constructing or keeping on their own land, things that would be a nuisance to their neighbors.
4. To make war on other nations.
5. To forbid or restrict the sale of poisons, intoxicants, milk, tea, bread, etc.
6. To take private property for public uses, or to allow corporations as, for example, railroads, to do so.
7. To make laws regulating rates of interest, or hours of labor.
8. To compel people to retire at a certain hour. See Cyclopedias under Curfew.
9. To regulate the manners in which people shall dress.

See Bryant's Popular Hist. of the U. S., Vol. II, p. 26, and p. 62 et seq. — Cy. of Pol. Sci., Laws, sumptuary. — Mem. Hist. of Boston, Vol. I, p. 483.

Forms of Government.

1. Reports of Committees on forms of government of
   - A. The early Indian tribes, see ref. 2, 4, 5, 6.
   - B. Dahomey " " 1, 2, 3, 6.
   - C. China " " 1, 2, 3, 6.
   - D. Russia " " 1, 2, 3, 6.
   - E. Great Britain " " 1, 2, 3, 6.
   - F. France " " 1, 2, 3, 6.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION. — 1. Martin's Civ. Gov. pp. 24-30. 2. Alden's Sci. of Gov., Chap. III and IV. 3. The Statesman's Year Book, under respective countries. 4. Bancroft's Hist. of the U. S., Vol. II, p. 109 et seq. 5. Hildreth's Hist. of the U. S., Vol. I, Chap. II. 6. General Cyclopedias.

DISCUSSION. — A Pure Democracy: does it anywhere exist? Is it a Pure

Democracy if women are not allowed to vote? If children?

ADDRESSES. — A. Limitations to a Pure Democracy and the alternative. B. Conditions of Society and Governments best adapted to each.

Growth of the National Sentiment in America.

Reports of Committees on

A. The New England Confederacy of 1643.
B. The Albany Convention of 1754.
C. The First Continental Congress, 1774.
D. The Second Continental Congress, 1775.
E. The Confederation.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION. — 1. Histories of the United States. 2. Dickinson's Our Republic, pp. 14–20. 3. Mowry's St. in Civ. Gov., pp. 36–42. 3. Fiske's Civ Gov. in the U. S., pp. 201–211. 4. Flanders' Expos. of the Const. of the U. S., pp. 39–44.

Library for a class in Civics of twenty-five pupils.

One copy each of

Cyclopedia of Political Science and American History, Laylor.
American Politics, Cooper.
Popular History of the United States, Bryant.
History of the United States, Bancroft.
History of the United States, Hildreth.
Public Statutes of Massachusetts.
American Commonwealths, Bryce.
Commentaries on the U. S. Constitution. Judge Story.
Essays on Government, Lowell.

Two copies each of

The Statesman's Year Book.
The Federalist.
Manual of the General Court of Massachusetts.
Exposition of the Constitution of the U. S., Flanders.

Three copies each of

The Science of Government, Alden.
Politics for Young America, Nordoff.
How We are Governed, Fonblanque.
How We are Governed, Dawes.

Five copies each of

Civil Government, Martin.
Civil Government in the United States, Fiske.
Studies in Civil Government, Mowry.
Our Republic, Dickinson.
Our Government, Macy.

[In following the method here proposed, one difficulty that will be met in most high schools is the want of a suitable room fitted up after the manner of a reading room in a library, where the pupils can retire under supervision and pursue their investigations. A bright teacher, however, will find a way to overcome this want at least in part.]

In this same way the investigation is carried on into the departments of government, and how the function of each is vested in governments of the various kinds; into town and city government, its form, character, privileges, functions, restrictions, and the reasons therefor. County and state governments will come next, and lastly the federal government.

When the study of the Constitution of the United States is reached, the class may act over in miniature, the Constitutional Convention of 1787. Time does not permit me to mention even a tithe of the interesting questions that will here arise, such as the advisability of having two legislative chambers, and giving the president the veto power, a permanent civil service versus "turn the rascals out," and so forth. Of what educational value is reading the constitution and learning from some text-book just what each section means, compared with such a training as this?

To accomplish all that is desired will require at least sixty recitation periods. These should not be oftener than twice a week, and once a week is better if the meetings can be extended through the requisite number of weeks. On the off days the teacher should take a few minutes to inquire into the progress the students are making in their investigations, and perhaps to give an occasional hint or make a suggestion. If possible the study should be carried on parallel with a course in history, and the two should be made to reinforce each other.

The plan here proposed for teaching civics is no longer an experiment. I have proven by trial its practicability and value. A year ago I took a class in civics to test the method that I had long been considering, and though I found that in many respects my arrangement was not the best, and though I was hampered by inexperience, the results were eminently satisfactory; immeasurably better than I ever got before. Among the good results obtained, a few deserve special mention.

First, training in English. For this purpose it is superior to any method I have ever tried. There are two reasons why it is so: the pupil has opportunity to express himself both orally and in writing, and is stimulated by an earnest wish to express clearly thoughts that have first become clear in his own mind. This is the rational way to learn language, but it is not always the process in English composition.

Second, training to think and speak logically. The pupil is trained to feel in expressing an opinion or in making a statement,

that he is bound to give his reasons or authorities. In this way he learns the difference between assertion and argument.

Third, it cultivates caution in expressing opinions, for as the pupil knows his position is likely to be attacked, he will try hard to be right. It is furthermore, a good plan at the beginning of each session, to give an opportunity for any who wish to change views previously expressed, to do so, and this frankness should be encouraged.

Fourth, it develops a respect for law and government, and cultivates a law abiding spirit that will show itself in the daily conduct of the pupils. Having taken high grounds of duty in their discussions, they will feel impelled to try to live up to them. This result alone is commendation enough for the method.

Fifth and last, it gives opportunity for individualism, a thing notably lacking in the procrustean method, — not methods, — of our graded schools. We generally feel obliged to put every pupil of a class through the same grind without any regard to his abilities. We hold back the bright and prod on the slow, and if we don't get the same pace from both, it is not the fault of our intention. By the parliamentary method the teacher can give a pretty free rein to individual capabilities. Of course he will try to repress all undesirable traits.

This leads me to suggest a few cautions. The teacher must persistently war against all slovenly expressions and vulgarisms such as continued repetition of the expression, "I think," and the conjunction "and." He must not in the discussions let a few occupy all the time, and this he can prevent by a simple regulation; above all he must not allow those to talk who have nothing to say. Such persons will be found in the school as well as out, and they should be suppressed. If you object that this would discourage them, I answer that to discourage such speakers is also one of the objects of the parliamentary method, and the one, perhaps, by which it will confer the greatest benefit on the world. The method aims, it is true, to train in the expression of thought, but not to encourage attempt at expression without thought. Another opportunity the teacher has to lay the world under a great obligation to him, is by impressing upon the speakers that they should never be tedious; that it is a breach of courtesy to overrun allotted time.

Some of the chief obstacles to the best results the teacher, I fear, will find in himself. One thing that he should do, I hesitate to

specify, for I am afraid that it is well nigh impossible. It is that he should learn at times to hold his tongue. He ought not to feel that he must forever be setting pupils right as to what they should or should not think and believe. To impart positive information has always been such an uncontrollable passion of teachers that it might be called the *rabies docendi*. The teachers of astronomy after Ptolomy did this so effectively that their pupils were ready to flay Galileo for his heretical notions. The philosophers after Aristotle taught philosophy so positively that to experiment was deemed only the suggestion of cranks. In fact a good deal of what we call imparting information is merely imparting prejudice. Such teaching would be a great calamity at times were it not that pupils have such poor memories. In following out the method that I have described, the teacher need not feel called upon to meddle with the particular views of the pupils. He should train them to think logically and express themselves clearly, and then with untroubled faith, he may leave the rest to time.

In this same way, the study of political economy should be, and could be, pursued in college. If it were, I am sure that social and political science would be the gainer. Many a venerable economic fallacy would go down under such a test. There is a hope that we might yet discover what wealth is, something that political economy has not yet done, though professing to be the science of wealth. At any rate it is not too much to say that college trained men, who had studied political economy in this way would not, as many men do, maintain the absurdity that the more wealth a country exports and the less it gets in return, the faster its wealth increases.

THE MASSACHUSETTS ASSOCIATION OF CLASSICAL AND HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS.

THE twenty-fifth annual meeting, held in the Boston Latin School, April 8th and 9th, was opened Friday morning with a historical sketch of the Association, by the President, Mr. Thurber. The paper was enthusiastically received by the members, and a resolution was passed directing the executive committee to consider the matter of having it published in full in some suitable manner. It will be found on page 187 of the present number of THE ACADEMY. Mr. Elbridge Smith mildly protested against the suggestion of the paper that he be appointed historiographer of the Association, but there was such a general recognition of his preëminent fitness for the position that his protest was of little avail. He dissented strongly from Mr. Thurber's statement that the elective system has come into use during the past twenty-five years, and thought that the President should modify the part of his paper regarding it. "The system was vigorously advocated fifty years ago in a book which I presented to you, Mr. President, some time since and which you ought to have read. In that book Francis Wayland, then President of Brown University, indicated many of the possible lines of progress in education, and among them set forth the very ideas on electives which have been so generally adopted in recent years. Moreover, a certain man named Thomas Jefferson, — a name which I can never mention without a malediction, yet I believe in giving the devil his due, — many years ago introduced the elective system in the organization of the University of Virginia. It was then of course very imperfectly developed, but on the other hand, we can by no means consider it perfected to-day. I may be allowed also to say that although the Association may have no intention of acting on Mr. Thurber's advice in the matter of the historiographer, I think it only fair to warn them that it would not be at all worth their while to appoint me to that position." Mr. Thurber smilingly declined to make any change in his statement regarding the growth of the elective system, saying that he would not even put the matter

to a vote, not wishing to see Mr. Smith overwhelmed by the immense adverse majority which would at once appear against him. Afterwards, by a unanimous vote, Mr. Smith was invited to prepare, with the help of the Secretary, a history of the Association from the date of its first meeting.

In introducing his paper,* Mr. George said that he had taken much encouragement from the tone of the President's address, in that it had emphasized the liberal attitude of the Association towards advances in thought. He had questioned whether what he had to say would meet with toleration or marked disapproval, but since the President had so warmly advocated the free expression of opinion, he ventured to hope his paper would be cordially received.

At the close of Mr. George's paper, the President declared the discussion open and suggested one topic which he hoped might be fully discussed, namely, the advisability of using translations in the study of the ancient classics. In reply to a question Mr. George said that many of those students in the Newton High School who were preparing for college ask to be allowed to enter his classes and are as much interested in his work as the students in whose regular course this work comes. The time given to literature and history in the school is five recitations a week for four years. One entire year is given to the study of Greek and Roman history and to the reading and study of the classics in that connection, as explained in the paper. In order to make time for this, there are dropped out of the course many subjects which receive attention in most high schools. Doing really good work in the masterpieces is much better than spending time in getting a smattering of the minor writers. No better training can be given pupils than a thorough understanding and appreciation of Chaucer, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, and among the moderns, Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning. The question being persistently raised what authors he omitted as less important, Mr. George finally mentioned Pope, and added that he would also leave out most of the essayists. During the first year when the pupils come into the high schools fresh from the grammar grade, large liberty is given the teachers to use whatever authors will best serve to *interest* the pupils. For example, if Scott will develop interest better than Goldsmith, Scott is to be studied. Most

* See page 195.

pupils come into the high school entirely ignorant as to what literature really is, and with no particular desire to know. The first thing to be gained is an interested hearing. To this end all grammar and philology are omitted during the first year and much reading is done. Afterwards when the pupils' perceptions come to be alive to the beauty and charm of literature, they will uncomplainingly take grammar and philology in quite large doses, and will even show interest in them. Mr. George called upon the principal of the school, Mr. Goodwin, to testify as to the pupils' attitude towards the literature work.

Mr. Goodwin said: The plan as outlined by Mr. George has been in use in the school for two years, and we find a larger number of pupils interested in this work than in any other subject in the school. It is hard sometimes for the other teachers to get their proper share of the pupils' time, so eager are the latter about their literature study. It seems to me that the question is one of end and aim, however, more than of method. The results accomplished are what should be mainly considered, and I find that after a year of work in Mr. George's classes, the students have much greater power to grapple with any question, whether psychological, ethical, or political. Their grasp of the literary and historical work which Mr. George gives them is such as I never have seen before in any subject in any high school. Another point gained is illustrated in a fact which recently came to my knowledge, that the pupils in the senior class have been buying books in the line of this work for their own reading.

Replying to a question of Mr. Thurber, Mr. George said that he uses Porter's translation of Homer, Morley's series, not because it is the best, but because it is good and cheap. It is my desire, he said, to stimulate the classes not to be content to read their English from borrowed books. When recently the class voted to take up the study of Aeschylus, nineteen of them wished to buy their own books rather than have them furnished, because they preferred to retain them as a permanent possession. This is by no means the least of the good results of my work. I like my to stimulate the students to get all sorts of translations from the library for comparison or for side reading. As an illustration of the interested research to which the work prompts them, a girl recently came to me to

know what translation of Dante was the best for her to read, although no direct suggestion had been made me with regard to reading Dante.

Mr. Tetlow asked whether the use of translations in school made it difficult to discourage their use by classes studying Virgil and Homer in the original. Mr. Goodwin replied that it did not. The matter had been discussed when the translations were introduced into the school and he had been on the alert for indications of their effect on the classical students, but had been able to perceive none. This he thought was largely due to the methods of teaching Latin and Greek. Pupils were expected to do a great deal of sight work in the class, and the examinations were always on selections which the class had never seen. Mr. Tetlow said that Mr. Goodwin's reply removed every objection — if indeed there had ever been any in his mind, — to Mr. George's method. There is nothing to be said against the use of good translations. Indeed there is everything to be said in favor of giving through their means to pupils who could not otherwise have it, the sort of culture that comes only through the study of the classics.

Mr. Thurber expressed himself as having found great pleasure in listening to Mr. George. He had often tried to interest the girls in his charge in Homer, had called their attention to particular passages and sought to encourge them to continue the reading, but their replies when asked if they enjoyed it, were always disappointing. He thanked Mr. George for the stimulus of his paper, and added, "I will try again."

Mr. Taylor of the Berkeley School spoke of the recent introduction into the upper classes of the grammar grade of stories of Greek and Roman heroes as reading material. The results of this innovation had been very satisfactory. He said: We were rather in doubt about it at first, thinking the names would prove a serious stumbling block to the children's enjoyment, but I find that on the contrary, the boys like the ring of them. One of them recently told me he was going to name his three dogs Hector, Ajax, and Ulysses, — "I like the sound of them," he said. It is more difficult to find out whether the girls enjoy these stories as well, but it is very evident what delight the boys take in them. Church's Stories of Greek Heroes has taken the place of certain books presumably

more interesting to children, as for instance Tom Brown at Rugby, yet there can be no question that we get better results from the present books.

Mr. Aldrich, Superintendent of the Quincy schools took as a text Mr. George's words regarding the necessity of awakening an interest in literature in the pupils who come from the grammar school. He did not believe it is a necessary condition of things that pupils should enter the high school needing innoculation with a love for literature. There is no reason why the interest should not be given them in the lower schools, — though he by no means claimed that it is given there. The lack of continuity and unity in the work of the two grades is accountable for this. The reading in the grammar schools is fragmentary and does not look to being farther developed in the high school. If the high schools took an interest in reaching down their influence into the grammar schools, the grammar school work would gain in interest. There is no reason why children should not be introduced to the ancient myths and the stories of primitive peoples. I find these are always very attractive to children. It is a sad state of affairs and as unnecessary as it is sad, that pupils should come up to the high schools or leave the grammar schools for life, entirely ignorant of all those matters which belong in common to all who lay any claim to culture. In this connection comes a pamphlet recently issued by the New England Superintendents' Association, advocating the extension of the course in civics and history down into the lower grades of the grammar schools. This is but another of the hopeful signs of the times, another indication of the irrepressible conflict at present going on between the old and the new. We have no cause for despair. But there is one lesson which we need to learn in the midst of our study of how to improve existing conditions: namely, that we cannot go on forever putting things into the grammar grades without taking anything out. The question of what shall be eliminated must also be considered. But whatever is or is not done, there can be no question but that we do not need to send pupils to the high schools to be innoculated with a love for literature.

Mr. Grace's paper provoked much applause and laughter and was followed by a vigorous and exciting discussion.*

* Mr. Grace's paper will be found on page 201.

Mr. Mendum of Woburn was called upon by the President to open the discussion. He said: I have been greatly interested in the presentation of the point of view of both the speakers; yet it is an undoubted fact that the character of the English teaching must be adjusted to the character of the community which supports the school. Mr. George is so fortunate as to teach in a community where people of culture are in the majority. I represent a work-a-day community. We therefore find it necessary to place the emphasis where Mr. Groce has placed it, mainly on composition. We use every incentive to get the pupils interested in writing their best. We have found one means in the coöperation of one of the weekly newspapers, which is glad to print each week the best work the pupils do. It is a question in my mind whether this is really a good way, — to have the best work published, unsigned, — and I should be glad to hear an expression of opinion on this point.

Mr. George said: It is needless for me to say that I do not in the least agree with Mr. Groce's position. I have been interested in the paper, I believe that composition is an important part of the work in English, but that it should be the chief end of the literature study I cannot for a moment admit. The object and aim of the study of literature is far higher; it is to bring the pupil in touch with the life of man, to stimulate him, to enlarge and ennoble him. It should awaken him, give him the ideas to express; the form may be lacking, but this is not likely. If he has something to say he will find expression easy. I am willing to challenge any teacher here as to the results I get in English composition. I am willing to stand the test as to the time and care I give to reading and suggesting upon the themes my pupils hand in. There is no one who makes more use of composition than I do. But if the end of teaching English literature were to be to train my pupils how to write a correct English sentence, I should resign my position at once. The end of the study is to give them a grasp of the life of the times, to show them the evolution and growth of the mind of man. I think the colleges make a mistake in the sort of requirements they make for admission, which seem to lay the emphasis on form of expression rather than on what the student has to say, what insight he has gained into the life of man.

Mr. Taylor here suggested that perhaps Mr. Groce's position might be accepted for those who are preparing for college, and are

to be the ones to write. They need to have this specific training when they are young. Those whose schooling ends with the high school must get there, if anywhere, that love of literature which shall make their lives happier and nobler. They may not have so much need of skill in using English, but not to gain an appreciation of literature would be indeed a serious loss for them.

Mr. George spoke of his own method in composition teaching. When his pupils have studied a drama or a poem and are to write upon it, it is not the story which they are expected to write and hand in to him, — not for example, what Aeneas did, — but a study of the poet's method of work, an explanation of the form in which Virgil cast his plot, the effects he sought to produce, the relation of the parts, each to each, — in short, an attempt to get at the mind of the writer. It is a system of comparative study, involving much more than the correct use of English. Every review is made an exercise in English composition, but he would not have his pupils suppose for a moment that the composition is the end of their literary study; composition is merely a means to the other grander end. It would be absurdity to suggest that they are reading Shakespeare to study the development of an English sentence. Such a thought would kill all enthusiasm.

Mr. Bergen of the Boston English High School said: This whole discussion seems to me to be the old one of the struggle for existence. If we teach a pupil that his success in life will depend in a large degree on his ability to use the English language, to express himself in writing and in speech, we can then leave it to himself. If it is a bread and butter question he will at once see where his interest lies and apply himself to acquiring the indispensable means to success. But we cannot leave it to him to select his own books, or rightly to appreciate them when chosen. His *existence* will in a measure depend on his ability to use English well and he will recognize that demand. But culture is subtler, and we must give it to him; he will not otherwise acquire it.

Mr. Goodwin said: I think that Mr. Groce has presented just the question we need to consider. I am weary of the discussion of methods, indeed I am growing a little pessimistic about them. The question is, what is our aim? Mr. George has presented one aim, Mr. Groce the other. Can we agree on the end of our English

teaching? If we can, methods will take care of themselves. I for one should be extremly sorry if this Association came to the decision that the end presented by Mr. Groce, learning to express, is the aim of literary study. Literature represents life, what men do and think and feel, and has much more to do for the student than to teach him how to express himself in correct English.

Mr. Knox of St. Paul's School, Concord, N. H., here asked how much literature could be read in a course, such as Mr. Groce had outlined, where composition was the main end. Mr. Groce replied, that it would be about three thousand pages, in brief, the requirements for admission to college as indicated by the New England Commission, and added: The two ends set forth by Mr. George and myself are not such as to exclude each other. I do not wish to be understood as undervaluing literature study as a means of culture. I want both ends accomplished, and I believe composition needs to be emphasized. I appeal to the teachers here present. Do we not make our pupils read a great deal and express very little? What use is their gain in culture if they do not express it? It is easy to read, easy to get pupils to read, to demand a given amount from them, but compositions involve more work. And it is upon composition that the *emphasis* should be laid. Expression is the end of all our study. It is, in a certain sense, creating; and certainly, to create is the highest function we can conceive. I reiterate my statement and say, that all over the country the emphasis put upon composition is very slight, and that it should be much greater.

Mr. Clay of the Roxbury High School, said: This is the same controversy which comes up everywhere, between the culture studies and the practical studies. Can he write? Can he use what he knows? Will it bring him dollars and cents? Will it help him through life? That is the question on one side. On the other it is, Will it give him loftier purposes, lift him, ennoble him, make him a better man? The solution of the matter is to decide in what way it is best to combine these two purposes, how much of practical study of form and expression to give, and how much study of literature in its highest aspect.

Mr. George spoke again as follows: Are we in this age of the extreme of materiality, at all likely to neglect the practical? Is not pressure brought to bear upon all sides to force us to give our atten-

tion only to that view of every question? Where are our purely culture studies, those which stood preëminently for cultivation as opposed to mere money-getting aims? Gone. One by one they have been crowded out of the high school courses. English is the only culture study left us in the high school, and now are we to make that practical, too? It should be left to us as the instrument for that higher training, that rounding of every faculty, which we call culture. Let us not lose our perspective in this matter. If literature does not form the character, ennoble the life, give high aims and inspire a desire for the best things, then its mission is indeed a very insignificant one, and we must give up our claims for the high value of literary study. If literature is merely the drudge for the extermination of newspaper English, all our efforts to win for it a high place in courses of study are indeed disproportionate to the results we are likely to get.

Mr. Taylor said: It has been a little sad to me to find that though when I hear the girls under Mr. George's charge reading their essays and making their recitations, it certainly seems as if they thoroughly understand and enjoy the literature which they study and show an appreciation which is not often found in young students, yet outside of school, matters of dress, lawn tennis, and all the usual trifles, absorb them, are uppermost in their minds, quite as much as before they studied with Mr. George. But I would frankly ask Mr. Groce if he does not think Harvard College leans too far in the direction of expression, if it does not lay too much emphasis on form, and the correction of bad English. The growth in the department of history under the influence of Harvard has been marked. The examinations show yearly a more rational treatment of that study, and we may hope that in English time will also evolve the solution of the problem.

Mr. Gardner said: Are we not, in this discussion, overlooking the fact that the literature of the early part of the twentieth century is to be made by the children of the latter part of the nineteenth? Mr. Groce a moment ago touched on the vital point of the whole matter. The aim he advocates is not the practical, material, bread and butter side of the matter; it represents the highest aspect of all our literature teaching, for the power to create is vastly higher than the power to enjoy. If our study stops with the acquirement of

appreciation, sympathy for all that is noble and worthy in literature, it stops short of its best achievement; yet there is no reason why the power of expression should not come from such work as Mr. George has described, should not be its crowning result.

Mr. George here interposed the question whether the creators in the world of letters have come from those who were *trained*, or from the full hearts of those who loved, and lived in the atmosphere of, the masters. Mr. Gardner replied, that the full heart was indispensable, yet that alone does not make a master of language.

Mr. French said that they are right who argue that through literature study we are to get at the life and art of the masters, but that is only half of the subject; we must express what we get. It is of no use to get at the life and art of the masters unless we can give form to what we gain from them. The study of literature is of a moral character, it seeks an ethical end, — to instil into the student great ideas on life. Yet if we get anything from such study, we must and will give it out. Inspiration is half the process; after we have breathed in, we immediately breathe out. A good way to see whether a boy can breathe in, is to have him breathe out.

Mr. Thurber here contributed a word from his own experience, saying: I find that the girls in my classes have all the volubility I could desire. I have nothing to ask in that direction. Expression is easy; they write smoothly and clearly. Indeed, I may say that five-sixths of them in my upper class, write English quite as well as the magazine writers of to-day. I do not demand of them graces of style or fine writing, but in the matter of setting down simply, clearly and fluently what they have to say, I have no fault to find. Now I cannot persuade myself that it is my duty to keep constantly training those girls in the matter of expression. In the lower classes there is some difficulty, however, and it occurs to me it might be a helpful plan to separate there the pupils who can write from those who cannot, and let their line of training be different.

President Capen of Tufts College said: Mr. Thurber's experience is different from anything that comes within my knowledge. I am glad to know that girls are such good writers. My own experience is mainly confined to boys. It may be that in the next century we are to be inundated by a flood of notable female writers, — but I cannot say I have any great fear that such will be the case. I hear

it said on all sides that there is more need of training in expression, that is, in spoken and written English, than in anything else. My own observation and experience bear out this statement. Boys when they come to college cannot write good English, and I am sorry to say they have not all gained that ability at graduation from college. What is the supreme test of culture? Is it not expression? I listened to Mr. George, and I agreed with him. I listened to Mr. Groce, and I agreed with him. I never imagined that there was any disagreement between them. The lines of thought along which each argued seem to me one, — the aim of each impossible to be accomplished without the other. What is the difference between the shoals of men who go out from our schools and colleges every year, and Edison, for instance? Is it not in their power of expression? The man who accomplishes anything must express himself, must put upon record that which he has within. What is the test of Matthew Arnold? Not his ideas; other men may have, do have, the same ideas; but he has the supreme power of expression. I knew a man who could quote Homer in the original, knew Virgil by heart, and had Shakespeare at his tongue's end, and he could not write a page of decent English. He was a shoemaker who had read and studied by himself. Was he a man of culture? It is the same in this matter of University Extension. It is in many ways a good thing, broadening the ideas of those who come under its influence, but it is not an instrument of culture. It is indeed hardly taking a step in the direction of culture. It does not make its students *masters* of the ideas which they acquire, thus enabling them to put those ideas into expression. A man may have all the knowledge which science, research and a life of study can acquire, and yet not be a man of culture. Again, take for instance the letter you receive from a business man. It is a model of clearness and conciseness, perfectly adapted to its purpose. Yet if this same man is perhaps a Sunday-school superintendent, and writes a paper to read to his school, see what a jumble he makes of it. He has no power of organizing his ideas and putting them forward. A teacher is seriously mistaken in his ideas of his vocation if he does not give his pupils the sort of training which Mr. Groce has described.

Mr. Mendum said he wished, as a former pupil of Mr. Groce's, to testify as to the great benefit he received when studying under him. I was a great politician in those days, he said, and I had very

strong ideas which I wanted to express. That was what I craved, — the ability to say what I wanted to. To-day I have forgotten what my ideas then were, but I have never forgotten those blue marks with which Mr. Groce used to ornament my compositions.

Mr. Aldrich said: Of the threefold manner, physically, intellectually, morally, in which young people are capable of being developed, our methods have all looked to the intellectual. Our teaching has been tested by the intellectual training we have given. Now as I understand it, our central aim ought to be the moral development. As Emerson says, it is conduct which is of supreme interest to us. It is a pity to say that our aim is only to make good English writers. The creative faculty is determined by what is back of the creation. We are called upon to attempt far more than to train our pupils in manner of expression. The life is more than the meat, the spirit more than the form.

President Capen replied: Certainly, a college teacher of philosophy would be the last to put the study of ethics in an inferior position. We want our students to know all we can teach them of the ideas of Plato, Descartes, and the rest. But when we have given them this, we want it to take some form in the *life*. These subjects should all be taught with the definite aim of giving some definite result in the life. Either aim alone, — the ideals established within the mind, or the outward power of expression, — is only half the business of the teacher.

In the afternoon, Professor Paul H. Hanus of Harvard University, opened the discussion of the report of the committee appointed last year to investigate the subject of college requirements in mathematics:* The time has come when a greater demand should be made by the mathematical department as well as by the English department for admission to college. The requirements in the classics and kindred subjects have gradually been raised until the colleges are able to meet fairly the outside demand in these directions, and now the cry comes for better preparation in mathematics, made necessary by the advances in scientific study which demand of students a better grasp of mathematical principles when put into actual practice. I

*This report was presented by Professor Truman H. Safford of Williams College, and will be found on page 210.

have in the past had intimate connection with the study of mathematics, and at present am somewhat qualified to speak on this matter of preparatory teaching, inasmuch as I represent the subject of teaching in general. I do not agree with the statement in the report, that the teaching of mathematics in the schools generally is good; and it is my conviction that there is also much room for improvement in the colleges themselves, though it is not at all strange that the colleges should wish to put the blame on the preparatory schools, or that they in turn should try to shift it back on the grammar schools. But to-day it is the quality of the preparatory teaching which we are considering. It is an old platitude in teaching that there is nothing in the understanding which was not previously in the sense. This saying embodies a truth which teachers of mathematics are too prone to overlook. The perception, the *sense*, of the students must be awakened and trained. In geometry the forms which the pupil is dealing with must be distinctly conceived before they can be understood. He must be able to image these conceptions. I am an advocate of the introduction into grammar schools of the study of graphic geometry. It is a subject which is especially fitted to be taught there. It was twenty or thirty years ago that President Hill of Harvard, realizing the importance of this early training in the study of geometrical forms, made a little book which was put into the schools of Michigan. It was not, however, an entire success there, for the grammar school teachers objected to taking the time necessary for this new study, and the definitions of the book being clumsy and wordy, were not very well adapted to young minds. This little book, published and experimented with more than twenty years ago, was an attempt to embody the very ideas which are to-day embodied in the courses of study in foreign schools. Though we can hope for only a partial success for such teaching at present, yet all teachers can at least take pains to keep before them in their geometry teaching the aim of developing this most important faculty, *perception*. In fact, whenever the teaching has not been good, the failure has been just here, — the pupil has not been made to realize the concrete basis upon which he is working. It would result in a great saving of time, as well as in better preparation, if the teaching of this subject could be put upon a concrete basis. It is a study apt to be distasteful to pupils, because they are not interested, and it is hard to awaken an interest where it is not inborn. But no good work can possibly be done without

interest, and this factor cannot be gained till pupils are made to perceive that their mathematical study deals with realities. Let them do a little construction in geometry, let the question once be raised, *why* is this so, and you have conquered the subject. The difficulty is just here, and this fundamental conception must be grasped, the pupil must learn to express himself both in drawing and words, before any real benefit can accrue from his study.

Mr. MacDonald of Stoneham said: There is one way in which all the geometry required for admission to college can be acquired, not only without beginning it down in the grammar school, but even in less time than is now given to the study in the high school, and that is by pursuing a rational method of teaching it. The prevailing manner of teaching it involves an enormous waste of time. In the first place, pupils are made to learn by rote the demonstrations of the propositions that constitute the regular syllabus of plane geometry, and then, to get the discipline that they have failed to get by this irrational way, they have to demonstrate a mass of stuff called "original demonstrations," but which, more properly speaking, are mere useless and disconnected conundrums. In pursuing this course, teachers tacitly admit that their method of teaching the principles of geometry is wrong. Some one has said that hypocrisy is the homage that vice pays to virtue; ex-President Cleveland has added, that reciprocity is the homage that protection pays to free-trade; I would still further add, that the "original puzzle" is the homage that a wrong method of teaching geometry pays to the rational one. In this way a year is spent, and then when the pupils review for their college examinations, the whole subject has so faded from their memories where alone it had its abode, that it requires another half year or so to revive it. By studying the syllabus by the original method and omitting a lot of unimportant outside stuff, the principles of plane geometry can be taught in much less than a year, and grounded so thoroughly that the college review will be the work of only four or five weeks. I have now a class that began geometry two years ago last September, and finished the following March, never having seen a figure or a demonstration from any work on geometry. I have just begun a review with some of them for their college examinations, and they will easily complete the review and do much extra practical work in addition, in about five weeks. The colleges may raise their requirements in geometry

twenty per cent and I for one will agree to meet the requirements and not spend more than one year in all, in the preparation.

Mr. Fuller of Lynn, said: I am now taking my fifth class through this same method in which Mr. MacDonald has had such surprising results, but I cannot say that I can tell an equally amazing tale. I am a firm believer in the method, and I get better work from my classes in this than in any other way, yet I am not able to get up such a breathless rate of speed as he has described, nor do I think it would be well to do so. The class need time in order to digest the work. Moreover, I find that the class as a whole do not do the work. A few do the original demonstration, and the rest profit by their work. However, even those who are not able to demonstrate come to the class with their attention tense, ready to receive from the others, and as one of the teacher's main difficulties is to get attention, this is a very considerable point gained by this system. I want to say a word as to the locality of the blame for this painful lack of ideas we are all complaining of in the college student. The colleges put the blame on the high schools, the high schools on the grammar schools, but I would push it farther back than that, back of the child's cradle, back to his bad taste in the selection of ancestors. We all of us have constantly to recognize the inability of the average man to form a clear idea; we must admit that the average ability of mankind is low. Do not then let us hope for too much, we are sure to be disappointed. We have to educate pupils of all grades of intelligence, and we must do the best we can with the material we have.

Mr. Thurber here called upon Professor Safford to bring the discussion back to the question with a brief recapitulation of the points of his report. Professor Safford began by referring to Mrs. C. R. Lowell's book, An introduction to Geometry and the Study of Form, which, with the exception of one published in 1825, was the earliest attempt to teach geometry on the inductive plan. The teaching of mathematics has always been along the line of abstractions, or of pure mathematics, and this little book, calling geometry the science of *form*, was almost the first step in the direction of giving students the training which is found indispensable in the study of the natural sciences. The lack of any understanding on the part of pupils of this science of form is one of the greatest obstacles that lie in the

way of instructors in natural science. The ability to conceive of form in space should be acquired by the student in his preparatory course, and not left until he gets to college. Those students who have succeeded so well in the mathematical examinations for admission to college have often paid little attention to the science of form, and therefore when it comes to applying their knowledge of mathematics to any science they are found wanting. Their knowledge is only of abstractions. It is time that the old Euclidean methods in geometry teaching were done away with, for the science of to-day deals with the concrete. In order to make students ready to do the work of the college course in natural science, it is essential that the study of form should be begun in the grammar school. Pupils should there be made familiar with geometrical concepts as a foundation to all future study. If they are not early trained in this direction it is well nigh impossible to awaken perception of form after they come to college. It undoubtedly is largely the fault of the colleges that the preparatory work has not been along this line. Their examinations for admission have been set by professors of pure mathematics, and not by those who were interested in mathematics as applied to scientific work. There have been many attempts made in the fitting to schools to develop the study of form by means of demonstrative geometry, as Mr. MacDonald, for instance, has shown, but such attempts have not often been sucessful, simply because this study of form was not begun early enough, and because the work in the earlier years was all of a sort rather fitted to deaden than to develop whatever perception of form the pupil might originally have possessed, the time being given exclusively to higher arithmetic, that school-masters' device which usurps in the schools the place which should be given to mathematics. Professor Safford went on to speak of drawing as taught in the schools. The sort of work done there is useful in training the eye and hand, but it does not have any real relation to geometrical drawing. Drawing is one thing, geometry is another. They are not the same pedagogically. But the advances in the physical sciences and the modern higher geometry hang together, and the sciences are much hampered in the colleges by the neglect of higher geometry, which does not take the place in this country which it should, and which it does take in foreign courses of study. The work here in algebra is abreast of that abroad, but in geometry it is relatively very feeble.

Mr. Curtis read a letter from Professor Runkle of the Institute of Technology, saying that the mathematical requirements are about to be raised there, and the intention is to demand higher algebra and solid geometry, first one and, if that experiment is successful, then the other. Professor Runkle hoped he might have individual expressions of opinion from the teachers of the Association, first, whether it seemed to them desirable to make this increase in requirements and whether they could meet it, and secondly, which of the two, higher algebra or solid geometry, it would be better to require first.

It was then voted to refer the whole matter of college requirements in mathematics back to the same committee, to formulate their conclusions in a syllabus, which should discuss more definitely and more in detail the changes deemed necessary.

Mr. MacDonald of Stoneham, presented the next paper, which will be found on page 217. He began by saying that the title of his address as given on the programme did not quite represent what he was going to talk about, which was really the study of civics by parliamentary methods. At the close of his paper, the Secretary arose to disclaim any fault for the blame for the appearance on the programme of the title "Debate as a means of Training," it being just as Mr. MacDonald had originally sent it to him. Mr. MacDonald replied that he had not said it was the Secretary's fault, and Mr. Bradbury retorted that the Association would not think it had had a meeting if he and Mr. MacDonald did not have a few words about something.

Mr. Goodwin of Newton, responding to a call for an account of the debating society which is conducted in his school, said: That meeting is now entirely in the hands of the students. I was interested in it at the beginning, helping them to organize, but I have since left them to themselves. Mr. MacDonald says we need to discourage what may vulgarly be called loose talking in such debates. I think his plan for investigation as outlined is very good, but I do not see how a teacher can control a debate and discourage that rambling sort of talk, without also discouraging the pupils so much that they will not speak at all. Another teacher here agreed with Mr. Goodwin, adding that he had not been able to have such successful results from the debate in school work as Mr. MacDon-

ald had described. His own classes were too large and there were always some pupils out of whom it was impossible to get any contribution to the discussion.

Mr. MacDonald replied: I have found no trouble either in controlling the debate or in finding employment for the dull. In my paper I said explicitly that to those who cannot or will not speak, I give the work of investigation; I appoint them on committees, where often they prove eager and efficient workers. I do not try to make a silk purse out of a sow's ear; I do not try to make them all orators. This is one of the best features of the system, — it gives such a wide field for work of different kinds. Every child is different from every other child; yet in our methods we seem always to be trying to make them all alike, by making them all do the same things in the same way. I am also sure that the teacher can prevent aimless talking. I keep an oversight, see that the work is prepared beforehand and that each student is ready for the debate and knows what he is going to say. I teach them that they should never speak unless they have something to say.

The Saturday's session was opened by a business meeting, at which the officers of the preceding year were reëlected, and the committee reported that they had settled upon THE ACADEMY as the most appropriate medium for the publication of the President's address.

Mr. Thurber called the Association to order at ten o'clock, saying that he had to inform them of an event which had happened for the first time in the life of the Association, namely, that a speaker on the programme had failed to appear. And in the present case the embarrassment of the committee was aggravated by the doubling of the misfortune, in that two of the speakers had at the last moment been kept away by illness. As the committee were specially desirous that the topic for this session be brought up for discussion, they had decided to effect this by reading an anonymous article which had appeared in print some months before, and which though it could not be asserted to set forth Dr. Gallagher's views, yet would at least serve the purpose of introducing the subject. Mr. Rollins of the Boston Latin School, at the request of the committee, read the paper on the Division of High Schools which appeared in THE ACADEMY for September, 1891. At the conclusion of the article Mr. Rollins said: —

It may be permitted me to state briefly and without argument some three propositions which will reveal my own attitude toward this subject.

First: A school that has a special business to do will do that business better than a school with a variety of aims. The spirit of a finishing or high school is one thing, of a preparatory or Latin school another, of an industrial school another, of a commercial school still another. Pupils catch inspiration from one another, and the enthusisam, the *esprit de corps* is greater, the more single the aim. It is an argument of Superintendent Seaver's that college preparatory work should not dominate the curriculum of the grammar school; for the course of study adapted to a pupil looking forward to only seven or eight years of school life may not be the one for a pupil looking forward to twenty. It is better to differentiate the grammar schools into finishing and preparatory.

Second: In schools with different aims, emphasis may be laid upon different parts of coincident subjects. We had a beautiful illustration of this truth yesterday. Mr. George represented the aims and emphasis of a finishing school; Mr. Groce represented the aims and emphasis of a preparatory school. Mr. George would inspire in his pupils a love for literature and through it, a love for beautiful conduct, that so they might go forth from his school and be uplifting forces in the community. Mr. Groce would send on to the college boys well trained in correct expression through literature, not only to inspire in them a greater zest for literary studies, but to enable them in after years to deposit their thoughts in the minds of others with clearness and force. There is therefore no contradiction between the Georgean and Grocean theories. The essential outcome of both is the same. They are trying to gain the same mountain ridge; they are only ascending different peaks.

Third: When schools are divided by function, there are more pupils engaged in the higher educational work, and this is an immense gain to the community. The Cambridge High School and the Cambridge Latin School have grown more rapidly since the division was made and each has been allowed to develop along its own line. It seems to me, therefore, that in the differentiation of high schools division by function should be the guiding principle.

Mr. Bradbury was the first speaker in the discussion: — It may not be in good taste for the head of a Latin school to argue against

the establishment of Latin schools, yet I will venture to mention a few of what I consider the dangers in dividing schools into Latin and English in cities the size of Cambridge. Such division may be advisable in large cities like Boston, and I do not say I shall not presently argue on that side of the question too. The paper just read seems to favor the division by sexes. Now this is the last way in which I would divide a school. I believe the best schools are those for both sexes. The influence of the boys on the girls is good, and the influence of the girls on the boys is better. An objection against the division into Latin and English schools which appears on the very surface in a town the size of Cambridge, is the expense. There must be different buildings, different headmasters and heads of departments with the higher salaries these demand, the whole equipment must be doubled, and it will be seen at a glance that the expense is very great. Among the advantages in having the two schools together in Cambridge was the library, — a good collection of books then open to all the pupils. Now it is not accessible to the Latin school students. Again, in providing apparatus for the Latin school when it was taken away, a very small provision was made, and this is a very great disadvantage to us. On the other hand when the schools were divided, I had my choice of the teachers, and I naturally took the best ones. All my teachers except one are college graduates, comparatively few of the English school teachers are. It was a great loss of inspiration to the other school when these teachers were taken away from it. I do not hold that there can be no fine teachers who are not college graduates, but other things being equal, the college graduate is likely to be the better teacher. Now it seems to me that all this loss on both sides was not necessary. There was no reason why the schools could not remain together. One department need not be sacrificed to the other. The incentive is taken away from the teacher who has not the definite end of preparation for college in sight. When the schools were together the same teacher taught the Latin of the college preparatory class and of the English course as well. But when the college classes were taken away and that teacher had nothing definite to work for, this loss of incentive was at once felt. There is also a great inspiration to the whole school from the pupils who are going on, and to lose these students was another disadvantage to the English school. Again, a boy must now decide two years earlier whether he will go to college or not, and this is a very great objection to the division,— the earlier

differentiation of the courses of study. If a boy now decides late to go to college he finds himself far behind the classes in the Latin school. This illustrates the fact that the English school does not keep up the pace, — it cannot keep it up, without the incentive of the college examinations. An attempt was made to arrange the course so that pupils could, without disadvantage, make a late decision about going to college, but it was found to be impossible. The pupils are better in the Latin school, they are working to a fixed end, and the teachers are more anxious and keep the classes up to better work, looking toward the final test of their teaching. Another advantage which I found in having the schools together was that when a young man found that he could not do the work of the preparatory course, there was always something else to do with him. He was not dropped out of the school, but quietly put into the English course as an easy way to let him down, where he could try for the English diploma, in the hope of getting into a scientific school or the Institute. Formerly boys had two years to find out what they wanted to do, and to get waked up by contact with the more ambitious students. It gave the teachers a chance to know them and to influence the bright ones to go on to college. Over and over again I have been able to induce boys to go to college who had never thought of such a thing when they came to the school. Since the school was divided, I have no chance to meet the good scholars of the English department. The only way I can do it, is by getting Mr. Hill to send his best boys to me, — which he naturally does not want to do, — or to turn me loose among his lambs and let me take my pick of them.

Mr. MacDonald said: I think Mr. Bradbury has made the strongest argument he possibly could *for* the division of schools, though he doubtless thought he was arguing against it. We find that about ten out of fifty pupils in the high schools go to college. According to Mr. Bradbury these ten are to be told they have an object, they are to be encouraged, have the best teaching and the most attention, while forty are to be left to drift. The English department was used by Mr. Bradbury as a place of degradation, — a place to put those students who were incapable of the work of his college classes. They were taught that if they could not go to college, death and degradation must be their portion. I think it a was very good thing the schools were divided and the pupils of the English courses removed

from such an influence. Is preparation for life not an object? Is it nothing for teachers to be getting boys and girls ready to go out into the world? Is that an inferior aim to that of getting them ready to pass certain examinations?

Mr. Bradbury here interposed the remark that he had not said that the pupils of the English department had no object. Mr. MacDonald reminded him of his words in speaking of the pupils of the Latin course, "*they* had an object," thus implying that the others did not, and finished his criticism of Mr. Bradbury's argument with the question "Do they put boys to death out in Cambridge when they get through school, if they don't go to college?" Mr. Bradbury replied to the great amusement of the meeting, "We don't let them live in Cambridge."

Mr. Tetlow was the next speaker. He said: — To return to the paper which was read, it does not seem to me that the assumption there made is warranted in fact, namely that there is at present no difference between the Latin and English schools, that both lead equally to college. From that statement I dissent entirely. It is true that Harvard has adopted certain requirements that invite the English high schools to send their good students to college. Though the requirements perhaps describe a tendency of the colleges to-day, they do not describe an existing state of facts. When I announced to my school a course which substituted German and added mathematics for Greek, there was only one candidate who offered for the course. I recognize a distinct public demand for two kinds of schools. The colleges have not yet made such changes in their requirements as to make the distinction at all antiquated. The students of the English high school are handicapped when they go to college, and usually have to enter as special students; it is the exception when they are regular students. I am not impressed furthermore, by Mr. Bradbury's argument against the division, though what he said may be of weight in a city like Cambridge; I am sure it could not apply to a city like Boston. Nor do I believe that where the differentiation into Latin and English schools has prevailed, that it has been done in imitation of Boston. Such division meets a regular demand; I believe it to be in itself a sound basis for division. What Mr. Rollins suggested is eminently true. Those schools which have something special to do will do it better than those which have several unrelated objects. Moreover schools of moderate size are better, and when the schools grow very large, it is better even at considerable added expense, to have two.

Mr. Thurber contributed to the discussion the suggestion that in Germany the time honored division into gymnasia and realschulen does not correspond to our Latin and English divisions, for the realschule is by no means considered a finishing school, and the last thing the gymnasium would wish to be called would be "fitting school."

Mr. Wight of Worcester, responded to a call as follows: The discussion this morning has interested me more than that of any other session, and I have been much comforted by what Mr. Tetlow said on the subject, for we are at present instituting in Worcester, the second city of Massachusetts, a division of a school of one thousand pupils. We wish to make the new English high school of the same size as the Latin school, and we are confronted with great difficulties. In the Latin school here, every student takes Greek. We cannot do that in Worcester, for it would leave only about one-third of the] pupils in the Latin school. We cannot divide on a basis of sex. There is no public sentiment in favor of such a division. Hoping to find a natural basis for division, we arranged three courses in the Latin school last year. First we had a five years' course in Latin with Greek, fitting for Harvard. Second, a course to fit for the literary and scientific courses of college without Greek, — putting French and German in its place. Third, a classical course with more English. The first and second years of the three are almost identical, and pupils who decide at the end of the two years not to go to college, will yet have had the benefit of Latin study.

Mr. Tower said that he believed in the division according to location, to the community, and not according to the studies. It is impossible for pupils and teacher to come into close relations when pupils come from widely separated districts, and out of school hours the teacher can have no knowledge of them. One of the most important factors in education is the teacher's direct influence on the lives of his pupils, and it makes the chances for such influence greater when the pupils all come from one region. In an immense school, these close relations are impossible. We ought to consider *boys*, not colleges and institutes.

Mr. Jenkins, the recently elected Principal of the new English High School in Worcester, spoke of the difficulty which had been

found in deciding upon a basis for division. As a grammar school master he had had to present the question of the division to his own graduating class of this year. He always made it a rule to advise every pupil to take Latin and thus get as far as possible on the road to college, and he had found that in his own school a very small proportion of the students would choose the English high school, if the choice between the schools was one between Latin or the modern languages. He presumed whatever course was adopted would need much modification after the test of experience had revealed its weak points.

Mr. Bradbury remarked here that it had been found at Cambridge that people who will not send their children to a mixed school, will send them to the Latin school. He thought the distinction largely a social one.

Mr. Goodwin said: I think Mr. Tetlow has underrated the condition of the requirements for regular admission to college from the English course. There is a strong tendency in all colleges towards readjusting the requirements in such a way that a graduate of the English course can go straight to college. There is a demand for the uplifting of the English department, and this is what we should aim to accomplish. The best qualified teachers, the best apparatus, the best books, are good enough for those who do not go to college and for those who do. Pupils should be encouraged to think they can go to college from the English department.

President Capen said: According to my views, the New England colleges are not discharging their function fully in the matter of higher education as long as they put a premium on a purely classical education. If the relations between the colleges and preparatory schools are to be properly adjusted, the doors of the college ought to be more widely open. In the discussion Mr. Bradbury seemed to imply that the pupils in the English department are poor in quality and moved by inferior motives. I hope that this is not the case. The institutes are beginning to cry that the kind of education they give is as broad and liberalizing as that of the colleges. They are attracting the students from the English courses. How long are the colleges going to let this go on? How long are they going to hold their hands and let students who ought to be liberally educated escape us and into the technical schools? We ought to take pupils directly from the English courses and give them their degree. I

believe that the tendency to-day is to do this. Colleges are no longer willing to lose good pupils. Tufts College will give the degree of B. A. to those who come prepared in Latin and science.

In the absence of Mr. Ellis of the Cambridge Manual Training School, Mr. Curtiss introduced the next topic, manual training. He said: I have investigated the matter a little, but not so fully as I should have wished to do had I known this duty would devolve upon me. I have found that manual training is incorporated into the courses at Cleveland, Toledo, Philadelphia, Chicago, Brooklyn, St. Louis, and Indianapolis. In Cleveland, Toledo, and Philadelphia, manual training is taught in a separate school. In other cities it varies, — sometimes is a substitute for other studies, and sometimes is an extra course which may be taken in addition to others. In Cambridge the experiment is being made of a manual training school in connection with the English high school, although the manual training school is a gift of a single man to the city. In Boston $60,000 has been appropriated for a separate manual training school of the high school grade. The land is bought for the building, and they are now awaiting an additional appropriation of $60,000. When this has been granted, the building will be at once begun. The plans are made, and provide for a building two hundred and twenty by ninety feet, to accommodate three or four thousand pupils. It is expected that this school will take off some pupils from the English high school, but it will mainly take direct from the grammar schools those who would not go to the high school. The course allows for two hours a day given to regular high school studies, and three hours a day in manual training work. The building is to contain besides the shops, reading room, draughting room, gymnasium, four regular school rooms for the literary part of the work. Great care is to be taken in the erection of the building to obviate the noise and jarring from the machine shops.

Mr. Thurber remarked that it is startling to a teacher with the old prepossessions to find in a school boys at work at machines. To-day when you visit a school that has manual training, the shops are the feature of the school. They may be slow to let you see the work in the literary course, but they lead you with pride and delight to the work shops. This trend of public sentiment is not to be disregarded. The manual training movement is one of the most promising signs of the times.

Mr. Howell was the next speaker. He said: I was sent to investigate the Fall River school as a sort of reporter, and will try to give a brief account of what I saw there. The manual training work is a distinct course, and it is elective. There are fifty-six boys in it, out of four hundred and thirty-five in the whole school. But this proportion seems larger when we remark that there is also in the school a very attractive commercial course which takes a good many who would otherwise elect manual training. Four years are given to the course. The department is in the charge of a special teacher, Mr. W. J. Wood, a graduate of the Institute of Technology. The machine rooms are seventy by thirty feet. I asked a few questions of the head of the school, among which was what sort of discipline does the work afford. The reply was that the aim was not at the practical outcome, not to make masters of a trade, but simply the discipline, the gain in patient attention, accuracy, judgment, and skill. The pupils who elect the course are largely the boys who do not like books, although the boys in the manual training school have a pretty heavy course aside from the work in the shops. The appearance of the students was very satisfactory, they looked bright and earnest, and stand as high in their other work as any students.

Mr. W. A. Mowry addressed the meeting at some length, saying in brief that the sort of training which the manual training students get, namely in judgment, skill, etc., seems to be gained not as applied to subjects in general, but only with regard to the subjects treated in the manual training work.

Mr. Lamprey testified that the attempt at manual training at Easton has been a failure. It interrupted the work of the school, and furthermore, as Emerson in his gardening found when he stooped to pull a weed his thought escaped, so it seemed to Mr. Lamprey that with the exercise of the hands what little thought his pupils had escaped.

Mr. Thurber then said that during the recess he had received a bit of information which bore directly on the earlier discussion of the session, namely, that of the last graduating class at the English High School, forty-four had gone directly to college, and that two of the students who stand at the head of their respective classes in Harvard to-day, are graduates of the English High School.

The meeting then adjourned.

COMMUNICATION.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY:—

Perhaps the most important question just now to New York principals is the choice of a successor to Dr. Watkins as Assistant Secretary of the Board of Regents. Dr. Watkins was a man widely known and universally esteemed. He had risen from the ranks of educational workers in the state; he knew the circumstances and embarrassments under which all classes of schools labor; he had a clear conception of our educational needs and a wisely conservative spirit of reform. Every principal who had a case to present to Dr. Watkins felt that he spoke to one who understood his arguments and appreciated his position from a practical experience of his own. There is no place where a lack of thorough acquaintance with the work and environment of our different kinds of secondary schools can do as much damage as in that of assistant secretary. The man in the Regents' Office who comes into closest contact with the schools of the state ought surely to be a man who knows all about them. Secretary Dewey has won his reputation in other fields than those of secondary instruction, and he cannot be expected to understand the details of academic work. It is, therefore, all the more necessary that his assistant, to whom the oversight of these details is committed, should be a man both of varied experience and of sound judgment. The successor to Dr. Watkins can do more harm to the secondary schools of the state than can the successor to Superintendent Draper. The Regents are not a political body; they can be influenced by intelligent public opinion; and they should be made to understand the influence which their filling of this important vacany will have on the secondary schools. An ill-considered choice would do much harm to the very interests which it is the special purpose of the Regents to promote.

A NEW YORK PRINCIPAL.

We take pleasure in printing this communication from one of the wisest and most thoughtful of the New York principals. It voices exactly our own view and seems a mild rather than an exaggerated statement of the importance which attaches to the choice of a successor to Dr. Watkins. The principals of the State of New York

will compare favorably with those of any other state in the Union. Still they are human, and individual differences of opinion between them and the Regents' Office have occurred and will doubtless occur again. These, however, can be reduced to a minimum by having in the position of assistant secretary a man who is thoroughly trusted and respected by the teachers of the state, and one who above all can and will keep himself in an attitude of sympathy, viewing every question that may arise from the point of view of the schools as well as of the Office. Not every teacher who has himself worked in an academy or high school under the Regents can be counted upon, when installed in the office at Albany, to preserve this sympathetic attitude towards the difficulties and limitations of those schools. There must be united in the appointee much of the judicial temperament with a large ability to put himself in the place of the principals with whom he is dealing. He must be prompt, courteous and efficient, able to stand a great burden of work without worrying, and a multitude of annoyances without showing irritation. Such a man can be found among the principals of the state. Indeed we can call up in mind several who would do honor to the position, but THE ACADEMY has no special candidate to urge. There should be on the part of the Board of Regents a thorough impartial canvass of available men, and it goes without saying that no personal considerations of friendship or good will should be allowed to have weight. The appointee should be selected solely with reference to his ability to command the respect and confidence of the schools and to advance their interests along such lines as shall make for the cause of education and the good of the state.

[*Editor of* THE ACADEMY.]

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Clarendon Press Series. Thomson. *The Seasons* and *The Castle of Indolence.* Edited with biographical notice, introductions, notes and a glossary by J. Logie Robertson, M. A., Editor of "Selections from Burns." Oxford at the Clarendon Press. 1891.

English Words. An elementary treatise of derivations. By Charles F. Johnson, Professor of English Literature, Trinity College, Hartford. New York: Harper & Brothers, Franklin Square. 1891.

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An Inductive Latin Primer. By William Rainey Harper, Ph.D., President of the University of Chicago, late of Yale University, and Isaac B. Burgess, A. M., Boston Latin School. New York, Cincinnati and Chicago: American Book Company.

Episodes from Le Comte de Monte-Christo, par Alexandre Dumas. *Le Chateau d'If.* Edited with notes by D. B. Kitchen, M. A., of Merton-House School, Southwick, near Brighton. London: Longmans, Green & Co., and New York, 15 East 16th St. 1891.

The Retreat of the Ten Thousand. By Professor C. Witt, Head Master of the Altstadt Gymnasium at Königsberg. Translated from the German by Frances Younghusband, translator of Myths of Hellas. With a preface by H. G. Dakyns, M. A., translator of the works of Xenophon. London: Longmans, Green & Co., and New York. 1891.

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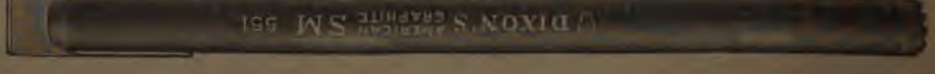
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Concerning the first three of these requirements it is easy to decide: either the composition is, on the whole, — for the composition is judged as a whole,— correct or it is not. The fourth requirement is the one of greatest importance: "The composition shall be correct in expression." As I understand this requirement, it means the result of the candidate's whole education, Greek, Latin, mathematics, science — everything; it shows his mental development; can he think and express his thoughts? Here, of course, the examiner reads between the lines. After the single glance that tells whether the composition fulfils the first three requirements, the examiner considers the fourth, where he finds not only the stamp of the candidate's individuality, but also very good evidence as to the sort of training he has received. The reader can quickly decide whether the writer is using his own thoughts or something that has been crammed into his head for the purpose of getting him through the examination. There are few places where the difference between the genuine and the sham is more apparent. In the one case the composition is consistent: the writer will undoubtedly show immaturity of thought, but he will also show that he does think and try to express his ideas. In the other case, the composition is a patchwork not only of ideas but of language. Several times in reading the last set of admission examination-books, the examiners came across books in which a polished little essay on the novel or the drama was followed by a ragged and jumbled composition on the subject chosen from the examination paper; to this, in turn, was attached with much straining and twisting a neat peroration of a general nature — suitable to attach to any essay. Every one knows that training of this sort is of the flimsiest and most hurtful nature — hurtful not only technically but morally.

For several years now Harvard has allowed candidates to take the English examination at the Final Examinations only. This has aided not the university alone but the candidate and his teacher as well. To the examiner it has given less work; to the candidate, an additional year of development and training; to the teacher, an opportunity to present his pupil for examination as thoroughly prepared as possible, thus increasing the reputation of the school. How much the percentage of failures has decreased since the Faculty refused to allow candidates to take the English examination at the preliminaries I am unable to state: doubtless the decrease has been considerable. Some may feel that it is a hardship not to give the candidate

a chance to try the examination twice in two successive years, but a little thought should convince them that this rule is no hardship. Every person who gains admission to the Freshman class of Harvard College should easily pass the examination in English: not one should be conditioned.

That this is not the case, that the candidates do not meet the requirements satisfactorily, we all know. For the last two years fifteen per cent, roughly speaking, of the candidates have been conditioned. Think for a moment what this means. Here I speak more especially to teachers of high schools. You send but a small proportion of your students to college; the greater part of them go at once into the world. You will grant, I think, that, as a rule, those students whom you send to college are the best, intellectually the keenest, that you have. Of these students, as I have said, the University conditions about fifteen per cent. Estimate, then, the number of persons who are sent out annually from our high schools unable to express their thoughts with a fair degree of clearness, unable to write passably good English. If to this number you add that vast number of those who never see the inside of a high school, who go to work as soon as they leave the grammar schools, you have a rather startling number of people who are said to be educated — who should be but are not fairly skilful in the management of a tool which they must use every day. There is but one conclusion to draw from this: there is something fundamentally wrong in the method of teaching English in the secondary schools.

Details of the faults in the examination-books of the candidates for admission to Harvard were discussed in my letter to Professor Briggs, published in THE ACADEMY for October, 1891.

From the examiners' point of view we say that the cause of so many failures in English composition is lack of practice in its broadest sense: not only lack of practice in composition writing but also lack of training in the expression of thought. From the Freshmen's themes we gain more important information: we see the lack of practice of which the examiners complain, and, further, a most serious fault in the teaching itself. For the student and for his teacher English composition is so much taskwork. One of the gravest faults which underlie the whole system is that the training in English is given not for the lasting benefit of the student, but to enable him to pass the Harvard entrance examination; when he has read the required books and written a composition, when he is

stuffed with the necessary facts and supposed to be able to bring them out as occasion calls, his education in English is complete — the time is given to something called more important. That English composition, in which the student should be most carefully trained during his whole preparatory course, should be considered of less than secondary importance, to be tucked in here or crowded out there, is manifestly unjust. This is a most important study: it deserves as much time and attention as Latin, Greek, or science. The place that it is to occupy in the student's life is vastly more important than that of Latin or of Greek. Is it not reasonable that the student should be taught to express his ideas? that great stress should be laid upon this?

The great body of teachers of English in the colleges will, I think, support me when I say that the instruction in English which we are forced to give to the Freshmen and perhaps to the Sophomores should all be finished in the preparatory schools. It is absurd that a college should be obliged to teach spelling, punctuation, grammar, construction of sentences and of paragraphs; that students who read Cicero, Virgil, and Homer, and translate English prose into fairly good Latin or Greek cannot write their mother tongue without making the most elementary mistakes. The fault, as I have said, is a radical one; it lies deeper than the high schools. First, however, let us consider what place English — here I deal especially with English composition — should occupy in the high school.

The study of English should go on during the whole of the preparatory course. When the student comes to you from the grammar school, he should be prepared, after his too long, practically undiluted study of grammar, to begin at once to study understandingly the principles of rhetoric. All his work should be accompanied with practice: in English composition he should know the practical value of everything he learns. He should write a theme at least once a week, twice if possible. in no other way can he learn to apply rules. These themes the teacher of English should correct. Then, most important of all, the student should rewrite the whole theme, profiting by the instructor's correction, improving the theme not only where the instructor suggests changes, but wherever his own good sense prompts a revision. In the whole practice of English composition there is nothing more helpful than this rewriting.

A word as to the choice of the subjects for these themes. As the time for the college admission examinations draws near, it will be

necessary for those students who intend to take them to write some themes upon subjects chosen from the books prescribed by the college. These books should, I think, be read outside the class; that he has read them the student will show by his compositions; it is enough for the teacher to talk generally of the book or the author in order that the student may read intelligently, and, for the rest, to hold himself ready to explain whatever the student cannot understand. Aside from the subjects taken from these books, try to interest the students in the work by selecting topics in which he is interested — the affairs of the school, sports, questions of the day for the boy who reads the newspapers. As a rule, do not confine the class to a single subject. It is a good plan often to allow the student to choose his own subject. Tell him this beforehand and, if he wishes, let him think or read about one. Most of the themes should be written in the class-room; this gives practice in concentration of thought and teaches the student to express his ideas rapidly and to write under any circumstances. The more elaborate advanced work must, of course, be done outside the class.

I am a firm believer in the suggestive method of correcting themes. We must, of course, suit the criticism to the individual but, as a rule, I hold that it is better to say, "this is not the best word," "this sentence is awkward," "this is ungrammatical," than to give the student the right word or the correct form. In this way you teach him to think, and this is or should be the object of all teaching. Insist upon the use of the dictionary. Each student should have a good, not too much abridged edition, and every schoolroom should have at least one unabridged. Insist upon accuracy in the use of words. As I said before, this lack of accuracy in use, and the lack of the feeling of possession, of power over words are two very grave faults in the admission books. Teach the student to discriminate between fine shades of meaning — he is taught to do this in Latin, he should be in English. The student should also learn synonyms —you can suggest them in the composition by sending him to the dictionary for another or a better word. Thus, as his vocabulary grows, teach him to choose those words which will best express his thoughts — to suit the word to the thought — that his English may be idiomatic, clear, and concise in accordance with the requirements of ease and grace in expression. Above all teach him to be natural, to express his individuality, and to avoid all fine writing. Too many teachers think that composition means something utterly foreign to the writer's self and to all ordinary forms of expression.

A single example will illustrate this. One candidate whose composition was stuffed with fine phrases could not understand why he had been conditioned. At the preparatory school, he said, his composition had never received a mark lower than ninety-five on a scale of one hundred; in fact, he modestly explained, he was "the best writer in the school." When the examiner told him that the stilted theme he had written was worthless, he was greatly surprised. His teacher, he said, had taught him to avoid "all common expressions in writing" — something he did most successfully.

Unaided, however, the teacher of English cannot train his pupils to express their thoughts with sincerity, directness, and accuracy: he must have help. The importance of home surroundings I cannot discuss here; but there is one thing upon which I should like to insist. Every teacher in every school should be a teacher of English. The teachers of Latin and Greek are, as a rule, about as powerful enemies as any with whom the teacher of English has to contend. If they had a mind to array themselves on the side of good English, fully half the battle would be won. In translations the teacher of language should insist upon idiomatic English. Ask for a literal translation if you will, but before you leave the passage see that it is in good English form.

The root of the trouble, however, does not lie wholly in the high schools. A large portion can be found in the grammar schools. A slow change is, I believe, going on there which will in time show its results in the colleges and among the people. The teachers are at last beginning to see the advantages of individuality of expression — that, primarily, their object is to teach the child to think and to express his thoughts. But at present too little attention is given to this.

My own experience may serve to illustrate my point. Thirteen years ago I was ready to enter the high school. In grammar, I had parsed my way from the fifth to the first grade of the school. In those five years I had written perhaps five compositions. These were done outside the regular work to please one or two teachers whose consciences had occasionally pricked them on the subject of English composition. I spent four years in the high school, without writing, as far as I can remember, a single composition. Once a week for three years I read Shakspere, Scott, or Longfellow, and once a month I declaimed. Such was my English education when I entered Harvard, and I came from the public schools of a large Massachusetts city.

This, however, was not the most serious fault of the method of teaching then in vogue. Pupils were not taught to assimilate the books they studied. Neither do the teachers of to-day insist on this as they should. In my own school experience a premium of high marks was actually set upon mere rote repetition of the statements of the text-books. In those days my memory was good, and I could recite the lesson in geography or history much as a phonograph might do the thing, — often with about as much appreciation of what I was saying. Once, I remember, I recited the whole of the French and Indian War out of a book with a reddish brown cover. My sole recollection of what I said is that something happaned to Miss Jane MacCree — I believe that she was carried off by the Indians, but I remember this, I know, because I stumbled at that point in my recitation and had to be prompted. Later I learned Greek and Roman history in the same way. Surely it is an easy method of teaching to say, "Smith, begin the lesson;" "Next, go on."

These things, I believe, are being changed now, but the change is going on all too slowly. A few weeks ago I discussed the matter with a teacher in the lowest grade of one of the grammar schools of a large city; she told me that the method she had adopted in teaching small children to read and to think was sufficiently novel to attract the attention of the superintendent of schools. Her method was simply this: After the children had read the lesson, she bade them close their books and then asked them to tell the story in their own words. This is the correct method,— the method which should be adopted everywhere. From the time the child first enters school, he should be taught to express his own ideas: he should study understandingly.

Perhaps you say that this is not English composition, nor has it any thing to do with college requirements in English. It is English composition in the broadest, the best sense, and it is what Harvard asks. As soon as the child begins to write, he should put upon paper the expression of the thought he has assimilated. This training should go hand in hand with the instruction he receives in every study. Then he will know the rules of grammar and he will be able to do what many high school graduates of to-day cannot do — apply them. The children who enter the high schools from the grammar schools will begin there the training in English composition which is now given in college, and the college student will be able to devote himself to university work.

THE ARGUMENT FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL.

ROLAND S. KEYSER, MIDDLEBURGH, N. Y.

THE public high school has come to have an important place in our American system of education. Indeed, it is so much visited and criticised by educators and so much noticed by the outside world, that it may fairly be said to be generally regarded as the head and representative of the system. It shows the educational tendencies and embodies some of the best educational thought of the time. But, still, the high school has not been regarded as an essential part of our public school system by some who are active friends of the system as a whole. It has been argued that education of as high a grade as that of the high school is a luxury not a necessity, — that primary and grammar schools must be maintained by the state because they are necessary to the existence of the state, but that the high school is primarily for the benefit of the pupil and only secondarily an advantage to the state, and that, therefore, the high school should be supplied by private enterprise. The weight of public opinion, it is true, is in favor of the high school; but public opinion is often unreasoning, and there is in some quarters a feeling that, though the high school is a good thing, it cannot be defended by strict logic, and that it is better policy to glorify it and to point out its good results than to try to justify its existence from fundamental principles.

But the high school really has just reason for existence as a public institution. Public schools are maintained by the state for the same reason that it maintains a variety of other institutions — in order to preserve and advance civilization. In the end, the real right of the state to exist is that it conserves that settled order of things, that collection of influences and usages, to which the term civilization has been applied. It is organized in order to give scope for the development of human faculties and to preserve the results which these faculties have achieved. Under present circumstances, the preservation of the existing order is possible only with a considerable degree of general education. Unless the high school is unnecessary for maintaining the present condition of things, unless the general

diffusion of a lower grade of education than it gives will sufficiently serve the interests of the state, there is no just argument for cutting it off from our educational system.

Civilization is not merely a settled condition of things, it is a growth; it carries on what is vital and productive in one age into the next. As society develops, there must be an increased responsibility thrown upon the state. The forces which would preserve and carry on the state in the last generation will not avail for the present, nor will those of the present be sufficient for the age to come. It will not do for the mass of men to give their children the same amount of education that they themselves received: they must fit them for a wider sphere and increased responsibilities. If the common school was an educational influence powerful enough for the last generation, the high school is certainly needed to prepare men for the generation coming.

It has been argued against the high school that it educates a comparatively small number of pupils and that is consequently an undue expense to the state. But it may fairly be doubted whether the state's obligation to its citizens requires it to see that they not only have the same advantages but also that they make the same use of them. All minds are not capable of a given degree of training, and the state will have done its duty when it shall have supplied to each one an opportunity to gain the best education which he can receive. In the long run, it is education that leads in all that concerns a free state. It is not possible to train all men so that they shall have the power to lead; but the strength and safety of the state are increased by increasing as much as possible its directing power. The number of persons who drop out of the line before it reaches the high school is a strong argument for making the high school as valuable and attractive as possible. A large number of pupils, by the time they have reached the end of their primary school course, seem to have reached the limit of their intellectual capacity, — or at least the limit to which they can be led without more vigorous effort than our public schools can use. By the end of the grammar school course, the stragglers have become more numerous than the regular army. Many have been prevented from going on by unfortunate circumstances, but a still greater number have deserted from mental inertness — because they found mental labor so much harder than physical. The law of natural selection has been at work sifting out that great mass who are to do the ordinary work of the world.

With the increasing complexity of our modern society and the greater rewards that it must continue to offer to learning, there will no doubt be a greatly increased class of those who will seek the training of the high school. But we probably cannot expect ever to get into the high school a majority of our grammar school pupils. Mental power is specially valuable because it is rare; and it is of the utmost importance to the welfare of the state that it preserve and train all the mental ability it possibly can.

The charge is brought against modern society that it is unjust to a considerable number of its members, that it not only preserves the acquisitions and advantages of the past, but perpetuates and multiplies the injustices and inequalities that have grown up in it. The strength of the various socialistic schemes that have been so popular of late lies in a wide-spread belief that all men do not have a fair chance, that the civilization and state of society which it is the mission of the state to uphold press unduly upon some and help others to an undue share of honors and privileges. The poor man who finds himself at the base of society through no fault of his own feels naturally a kind of antagonism to the system that is pressing him down. Why should he care to uphold a state of things so apparently opposed to his interests? If the gates to something above him are shut and barred, why should he not try to batter down the wall? In the changes which a break-up of society would bring, he might reasonably hope to gain some advantage. At least, he might well argue that no change would be likely to make matters worse for him.

The strong argument for the high school is that it is one of the answers of the state to the charge of organized injustice. In almost every city and village the high school building stands as a constant reminder to the poor boy that he has his chance in life, that society has not decreed that he should be prevented from fitting himself for a higher sphere. It says to him in effect that, though his present position is dependent upon circumstances over which he had no control, a wider field for exertion is still left open for him. It shows that the gates to something higher are not shut and barred so strongly but that he may have a lever that will open them. He may have the same intellectual fitting for the conflict of life as his more fortunate neighbor. If he lets the chance go by, if he thinks that climbing is such hard work that he does not care to undertake it, he has thereafter no reason to blame society for his position. The high

school is not simply for the benefit of those who avail themselves of its privileges; it is an act of justice by the state to every poor boy and girl within the range of its influence.

The gift of equal educational advantages will not remove the many inequalities with which men start in the world. But society is not specially concerned about making circumstances equal, its great need is for genuine manhood; and a young man who can begin life with a good education has all the endowment necessary to develop what true manhood may be in him. It is one of the conditions of our present life that there can be no really good achievement without struggle. It is not for the interest of the state to make a man's way in life easy, but to prevent his being unduly handicapped in the race before him. He renders the best service to the state when he has a chance to labor with the full exertion of all his powers.

Another justification of the high school is that it promotes a natural circulation in society. Without an upward and downward circulation of its waters the sea would soon become stagnant and unfit for the support of life. In like manner, society is only kept wholesome by a steady upward and downward movement among its members. Where a state is divided off into classes by barriers which it is very difficult to break through, society stagnates and grows corrupt. If indolence and vice and debauchery do not readily carry a man down, and if industry and uprightness and enterprise will not avail to lift him up, the upper classes of society will have all of the active vices and the lower classes few of the active virtues. It is one of the conditions under which civilization exists that in order to be preserved it must be advanced. If a state checks the circulation among its members due to moral and intellectual causes, it will permit that civilization to rot slowly away which it exists for the special purpose of defending. Civilization is best preserved and advanced, and the state is, therefore, the most secure, when the largest number of its citizens reach their places by the unimpeded action of natural forces. There is probably no single influence that the state can use which will help to this result as well as the high school.

It has been strongly argued, from the maxim of the greatest good to the greatest number, that the state ought not to spend money upon high schools until it has provided for every possible need of the lower schools. To the poor man, animated by the spirit of modern

democracy, this must seem like an argument against his best interests made under the specious pretext of being of service to him. It is in effect saying to him that we will do all in our power to fit him for the station in life to which we assign him, but that we will do as little as possible to permit him to determine by the best exertion of his own powers what his position shall be. He may feel that he has neither the ability nor the inclination to strive for a higher position, and yet will justly resent the imputation that he belongs to a class which neither he nor his children are to be incited to leave. The high school is as integral a part of the school system as are the lower schools, and it should be allowed to develop at the same rate. Indeed, there is good argument, from a democratic standpoint, for devoting extra labor and expense to the high school. It is not of very much consequence to the laboring man that he get a small amount of instruction made a little better and more attractive; but it is of much consequence to him that the road from his station to the highest be made as open and inviting as possible.

The notion that the public schools are a kind of state charity for the benefit of the poorer classes is fostered by the socialistic spirit of the time. Socialism is in the air, and its influence unconsciously affects the opinions of a wide circle of thinkers. Not long ago Superintendent Draper of New York, said that he favored the addition of the kindergarten to our school system, and that he would be willing to sacrifice the high school for it if necessary. The kindergarten would, no doubt, make the life of over-worked mothers a little easier, and would prepare children to make better progress in the primary school; it is a good adjunct to our educational system if it can be afforded. But it stands in no such relation to the interests of society as the high school. The kindergarten is simply an educational convenience; while it is the mission of the high school to prevent a great waste of intellectual ability that is needed for the service of the state.

The high school is not, as has often been charged, specially for the benefit of the well-to-do classes. If the children of those classes largely avail themselves of its instruction, there is a substantial advantage to society, because it helps to beget that democratic spirit which modern society specially needs. But wealthy people are not concerned to have their children educated at the expense of the state. They can afford to pay well for their instruction if they can thereby secure them a monopoly of educational advantages. To lessen

materially the competition to which their children would be subjected in the race of life would be worth far more to them than the cost of providing a substitute for the high school. The people who would suffer by the abolition of the high school would be those who now find it difficult to educate bright and aspiring children with all the assistance that our free school system affords.

The high school is also one of the few moral influences legitimately under the control of the state. It is impossible for a really free modern state to do anything for the establishment of religious belief; while the connection of morality with religion makes it difficult to enforce moral standards upon many minds without a religious sanction. But the public school, taking its pupils in the formative period of life before the need of religious sanctions is so much felt, trains them systematically in those habits which tend to upright moral character. Without doing violence to any person's conscience by inculcating a particular form of religious belief, leaving still enough of the child's life at the service of those who may wish to give him formal religious training, it exerts a powerful influence in the development of that moral character which must prevail widely in society if a free government is to be maintained. It is safe to say that, without a much higher sense of parental responsibility than is now generally prevalent, the loss of the moral influence of the public school would destroy our present political society in a generation. The high school has a place of special value as a moral influence because it deals with pupils whose responsible moral life is just awakening. Its effect upon the pupil and upon society is deeper and more far-reaching than can be obtained from the lower schools. The state cannot afford to do without the moral influence that it derives, directly and indirectly, from the high school.

There are a variety of other arguments that can be urged for the high school which show its value and give reasons why society ought to maintain it; but they do not prove it to be so vitally necessary that on its account the state is justified in taking away one man's money in order to educate another man's children. The real justification of the high school as a public institution is its necessary connection with the safety and prosperity of the state. It is not one of the institutions which the state maintains for the general good like public parks and museums; its welfare is bound up with that of the body politic. The popular feeling in favor of the high school has a just and substantial foundation; it is a social instinct of self preservation.

ON THE STUDY OF LOWELL.

FRANK M. DREW, BUNKER HILL, ILLINOIS.

ONE great fault in the prevailing method of teaching literature in our schools, is the effort to present a historical and scientific view of the growth in expression. The old hand-book of the catalogue order is displaced, but in its stead we have either an evolutionary view, or else selected cases, — "typical." Leaving aside mere technical finish, we admit an author is valuable only as he (*a*) depicts the perdurable, or (*b*) holds the mirror before his contemporaries. We know that long "life is our dictionary" by which we interpret the former, that

> "Whatever empires wax and wane,
> To him that hath not eyes in vain,
> Our village-microcosm can show."

and that in any case, only as we understand our own life can we enter into that of others. Yet our young people, unfit to appreciate either point, are obliged to hold themselves to "selections," chosen because "they are so instructive" on matters which in themselves possess little interest for beginners. Too often the teachers have but scanty acquaintance with the author of the chosen extracts; nor have they time to know him better, because of the supposed necessity to illustrate many styles and periods within the limits allowed to the study. Yet any great writer can give one a many-sided view of life, and a large part of the field of literature can be surveyed and its characteristics coördinated by a teacher well-equipped from wide and long acquaintance with a master.

It may be well to ask, what is the aim in the study of literature? Now that we have about shaken off the grip of the "practical" man who demanded of the school trained accountants, can we not go farther and repudiate the claim that our duty is to turn out artistic writers? Should we train any writers at all unless they have something to say? Could we settle this satisfactorily in the negative, we should be left free to put stress on interest in the text, and leave composition to another hour. This is not heresy. We strive no

[illegible] Harvard Address.

The inter-play of Homer Wilbur and Hosea Biglow, and the close relationship of the War Poems, the later Odes and the early patriotic poems with the Political Essays, give a union of prose and poetry not to be gotten in any such rich measure from any other writer save Milton. Lowell is preëminently our national poet; he sang of the ideal principle of America, — human brotherhood. In the land where "the people rule," he attended caucuses, engaged actively in political duties, and did whatever his hand found to do to help on the day. An ideal Democrat, he recognized no ruler but the Great King, no master but Christ. There is no "dim religious light" in Lowell's writings; scarcely a page is there which is not aglow with holy feeling. The deeply ethical feature of his work adds but another charm for young people. Too much of our school growth is on lines and not in masses. As a remedy for this Lowell presents a life around which, on the concentric plan, we can group civics, history, philology, criticism, and ethics.

To sum up, in Lowell's writings we have (1) a strong ethical element; (2) a range of literature, both prose and poetry, which is confined to neither American nor British fields; and further we have (3) material good for the making of a man, one who shall be a patriot, loyal to his home, the world, and God. Should we have public schools for any other reasons than these?

To prevent misunderstanding and to illustrate what I mean, I will indicate a few outlines of study which are but fragments, tending to make clear what has been inadequately said rather than to guide the action of any one who knows the charm of the Preacher-Poet. We are drawn to an author by likeness in aims or desires. Children are dreamers of doing good. Though in large part they may be intensely selfish, yet they do look upward. The following lesson I style Lowell's Faith:

1. The Search. 2. A Contrast. 3. My Study Windows, p. 188, or Prose Works,* vol. II., p. 156: "The theory that the poet — world in which they had lived." 4. Incident in a Railroad Car, last five stanzas. 5. My Study Windows, p. 143, or Prose Works, vol. II., p. 111: "The true historical — not so ignoble." 6. The Oak, last stanza. 7. Sonnet VII. 8. Fable for Critics: from "There's Lowell," to "Jerusalem." 9. Si descendero in Infernum, Ades: third stanza. 10. Among my Books, vol. I., p. 358, or Prose Works, vol. II., p. 243: "It is when the sentimentalist — superscription of God." 11. On the Capture of Fugitive Slaves: from "He's true to God," to end. 12. Present Crisis: from "Then to side with Truth," to end. 13. Among my Books, I., p. 298, or Prose Works, vol. II., p. 171: "My respect for what Lessing — statelier even than his." 14. Sonnet XVII. 15. Sonnet IV. 16. All Saints. 17. Under the Old Elm, VI, 1.

*This reference is in every case to the Riverside Edition of Prose Works.

As a poet of Nature: —

1. Biglow, second series, VI: from "I, country born," to "Runs down a brook of laughter." 2. Indian Summer Reverie. 3. Appledore, II. 4. Sir Launfal, passages beginning: "And what is so rare," "The crows flapped over," "Down swept the chill wind." 5. My Study Windows, p. 24, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 253: A Good Word for Winter; especially, (p. 39 or 273) "But I would exchange — be thou on the earth:" (p. 41 or 275) "The preludings of winter — foreign and unintelligible:" (p. 47 or 283) "I have spoken — cloud in the upper sky." 6. Under the Willows: from "May is a pious fraud" to "wind into his pulses." 7. To the Dandelion. 8. Al Fresco. 9. My Study Windows, p. 281, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 355: "Chaucer gives only the — breaking it into a ripple." 10. My Study Windows, p. 28, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 260: "The love of nature — painters of ideal landscape." 11. Among my Books, I., p. 376, or Prose Works, vol. II., p. 266: "In the whole school — and what we must." 12. My Study Windows, p. 304, or Prose Works, vol. I., p. 375: We [I] do not believe — on the day in question." 13. The Nightingale in the Study."

Adolescence is a period of great mental unrest. The ground stands ready into which, while reading The Cathedral, the sympathetic teacher can drop much philosophy, — seed-thoughts that as matters go now would else be unknown. This poem should be read in successive years, — once for a general idea and to look up references (which is about as far as many reading-clubs of adults go); again, to make a psychologic study; a third time for its philosophy; and a fourth, to compare it with related works, e. g., Emerson's Over-Soul.

With an interested class a critical study of literature, and incidentally of Lowell's rank, may be made along the following lines: —

Reviews the Fable for Critics and The Cathedral, read — 1. Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. 208. "There are two ways — to aim at it." 2. Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. 350. "The poet's office — a wider field of view." 3. Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "None of our great poets — calm and cheerfulness." 4. Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "The Iliad — borrowing from the past." 5. Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "poems are — used in a figurative sense": Among my Books, [illegible] p. [illegible] Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "So soon as a language — English and the world." [illegible] p. [illegible]. "Land and the great — De Quincey thought [illegible] p. [illegible]. "There is much else — discouragement in the subject." [illegible] p. [illegible]. "Shakespeare has been used. — A all many-sidedness." 6. Among my Books, [illegible] p. [illegible] Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. 208. "For he was a [illegible] great man [illegible] Among my Books, [illegible] p. [illegible] Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "[illegible] it [illegible] — not a knowing [illegible] p. [illegible] Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "[illegible] — [illegible] a close. 7. Prose Works, vol. [illegible] p. [illegible]. "[illegible] — [illegible] a magnificent [illegible] p. [illegible]

"In estimating Shakespeare — to be saved or lost." 13. My Study Windows, p. 252, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 322: "Before Chaucer, — his plastic nature." 14. Prose Works, vol. VI., p. 80: "'Books,' says Wordsworth — husk and symbol." 15. Prose Works, vol. VI., p. 110: "Even as a teacher — so to his loss"; Study Windows, p. 228, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 292: "Poets have forgotten — the test of genius"; Among my Books, I., p. 173, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 28: "Many years ago — much less to others." 16. Among my Books, I., p. 222, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 87: "I shall not attempt — eye of the pure artist"; (p. 226 or 92) "I have not said — solidity of understanding." 17. Prose Works, vol. IV., p. 165: "We may admit — types of winning grace. 18. Prose Works, vol. IV., p. 232: "Greek art at — the mediatorial God." 19. Among my Books, I., p. 197, or Prose Works, vol. III., p. 56; "Much of that merit — imprisoned in his bones." 20. My Study Windows, p. 394, or Prose Works, vol. IV., p. 11: "No observer of men — comfortable for life." 21. My Study Windows, p. 215, Prose Works, vol. II., p. 126: "But in spite," to close.

Make a spiral course. Have no annotated texts, but let Lowell explain himself. Spend half the second high-school year on a study of the man, the friend; one-third the next year devote to the citizen; one-third the last year give to critical study. We can have some Chaucer, Shakespeare, and others, and when we wish to read what is said of these authors, we can go to Lowell's essays.

This is a hard line of work? Perhaps so. But I believe somewhat in predestination.

> "So from the heights of will,
> Life's parting stream descends."

Strike for the leaders; they will educate the slow ones, both in class and later, in the after world of social life.

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*WHAT THE TEACHER OWES TO HIMSELF.**

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THE teacher owes it to himself to be an individual, not a machine. No matter how well adjusted, oiled and set up, a machine only conserves and transmits force; it cannot generate it. Teachers ought to be makers, creators. Unfortunately a man becomes a machine sometimes (or possibly has never been anything else) without suffer-

* Part of a paper read before the Teachers' Association of Western Massachusetts, at Westfield, Feb. 5, 1892.

ing over his own deficiency. In certain cases there can be no doubt that the metamorphosis has been encouraged, its results applauded. But the students usually know the difference; they suffer and they resent. I have sometimes wondered whether in this particular connection the revival of a certain middle-age custom might not be edifying. In those old days of few books and much copying, of little Aristotle and many notes, the scholars used to fall upon the unsatisfactory teacher with their iron styles and end his self-deceptive ministry. Judicious and well-timed prodding might ensure a wiser estimate of the situation from us.

I hate the term educator as a misnomer, inaccurate and misleading. In a certain narrow sense it is true that as far as the student is concerned, he must be treated in the light of what he has and not of what he has not, but the teacher can no more afford to be a simple educator than the old *dux* could have stopped with being a duke. If drawing out were all that could rightly be expected of him, what would be the point of all our admiration of the great influences that have from time to time advanced the profession? Whatever may be the facts from the outside, this is not our ideal. The great teachers have been individuals and yet they have taught. Suppose we put it another way: because they have been individuals, they have taught, and by comparison with the rest they have seemed great. What else is the meaning of that often quoted remark of Garfield about Mark Hopkins and the plank bench, or of that other from John Henry Newman concerning universities in tents, if only there are great teachers there? It is matter for regret that this view of the individual teacher is always accompanied by surprise and a sense of its being exceptional.

Moreover, an individual may be supposed to be interesting to himself; a machine never can. A machine under the best conditions is full of fine and elusive frictions. Ultimately it will break down. It is natural and proper that it should. The individual should develop, grow, and as a matter of supreme right, he may die; but to break down is in itself a disgrace. The machine has a principle, but no secret. Once master the scheme of its construction, and there is an end of all mystery. Here begins the charm of the individual. Age cannot wither nor custom stale its infinite variety. Children in some respects see more clearly than their elders. They insist upon being of importance in their own eyes, and invent secrets to pad out their sense of shrunken proportion.

I suppose nobody feels any rooted and grounded objection to being an individuality. But the important question is how to secure the condition. In the stress of an exhausting and exacting profession, what course is one to pursue that shall secure certain ends outwardly most uncongenial to its own? And since such a course is obviously exceptional, where shall the teacher take his point of departure? Shall he introduce his reforms into the school room, or make his declaration of independence cover only those invasions of his time that custom has legalized?

Instead of eternal speculation about the school and its methods, its hours and its furniture, let us center our attention on the teacher and his chance of survival. I can answer the question set me for a topic in a single phrase. The teacher owes himself a wider horizon than his school room. This sounds as familiar as the answer to the first question in the catechism. With the words we are familiar enough, but not with the conditions that justify them. To come down to particulars for the sake of making my point impressive: the teacher owes himself a fair chance to be the man he was patterned for physically. To this end he ought to have some form of exercise at his disposal. It is not necessary to go into detail. Most people know what rest physical exercise of the recuperating sort is. Those who do not are already in need of a physician. Such exercise the teacher owes himself, at least an hour of every day, — not taken in little homeopathic doses on the way to and from school, or to his meals, but an hour's expedition or training, if possible something that may carry with it an exhilarating sense of accomplishment. For myself, I like even a walk to have a definite beginning, middle and end. Whatever the form of recreation chosen for exercise, this completeness seems its best characteristic. It makes a most restful contrast with the fragmentariness of a teacher's day. From such an experience one comes back with his sense of unity reinforced. The teacher owes it to himself to keep the student in his proper place where he will be a receiver of benefits, not a tyrant with rack and thumb-screws for the teacher's nerves. Ascetic superiority, born of restless nights and desire for the child's welfare is not half as efficient as healthy indifference to all but the main point. The teacher owes it to himself to have a physical life capable of absorbing him and impressing his students.

Next, the teacher owes himself an avocation. We hear much of the teacher's calling, of the importance of his mission, of his work-

ing with a sense of consecration. The difficulty is in drawing the line and keeping it distinct between consecration and drudgery. Hence it is quite as important that the teacher should have something to be called away from. It must not be forgotten that his work well done is exceptionally exhausting and irritating. For while human nature remains human nature, his real work lies with the will. It is easy enough to feed bread to people who want it; the problem is how to make them take bread when they want cake, or to give them an appetite when they have none. Ultimately every teacher recognizes that heis face to face with the will of the student, and that he must control and direct, if he is not expected to increase or diminish it. Working with wills is ticklish work. Whether you are in charge of the keyboard at the general distributing office, or are simply a line man, mistakes are likely to be fatal. The teacher's profession in this country is the only one that seems to contemplate no disposition of time in the interests of a wide and invigorating culture to offset the demands of an exceptionally narrowing occupation. A doctor, a lawyer, a minister, is supposed to keep up his studies. Even business men do better than teachers. The New York Stock Exchange affords an interesting example of what I mean. On a dull day you see men gathered together in little groups, comparing pamphlets, and calling one another's attention to items in catalogues. Here are stamp-collectors, buyers of old books, rare engravings, bronzes, china, jewels. The best collection of butterflies known, I am told, is the work of a New York stock broker. The highest authority in England on old coins is said to be a stone mason who prefers to earn his bread by stone work and to keep his coins for inspiration. I insist that it is impossible to say how much interests like these contribute to the clearness of mind and the power of work of their possessors. A man is twice a man and worth twice as much to the world for every relation that he really masters.

There is no more absurd mistake than the assumption that every efficient interest of a teacher outside the school room implies a lessening of his efficiency within it. Is it reasonable to suppose that the best work can be done for immature minds by another that feels no wants beyond what theirs can supply? The teacher owes it to himself to cultivate a large crop of wants, to cultivate his own nature, so that except in its one legitimate relation, the student's shall seem a mere speck on his horizon. For I cannot see that

dwarfing those active principles of his nature will serve God or man. His students neither appreciate nor honor a self-denial that they are clear-sighted enough to see benefits nobody and harms him.

The teacher owes himself time to waste. Under the present high pressure, teachers even more than other men ought to stand for the importance of this. It has come to the pass that only in the time we waste can we get acquainted with ourselves, or to some extent with other people. Life is really more than a time-table. Greek culture, Roman philosophy and Yankee whittling have met the real adjustments of life more successfully than our over-careful civilization. Philosophers, who after all are only men who study into what other people take for granted, have seen clearly that this artificial condition cannot be permanent. Aurelius and Antoninus enforce the necessity of real soul leisure in which a man comes to know himself and his resources, stripped of the conventional and accidental. We confess to our pettiness in our ultimate dependence on these outward relations. And the pettiness is really starvation. We are eaten up of a mistaken zeal. The teacher owes himself intervals, not so much of relaxation as of growth. He owes himself a few thoroughly unprofessional, unremunerative interests. To this end he owes himself a wider range of companionship than he usually has. We take ourselves a vast deal to seriously, and are used up in the effort. A taste for the frivolous, the picturesque, the diverting, is excellent, and keeps people friends who would quarrel about politics or religion. The teacher owes it to himself to keep out of ruts. He is in danger of these in his work, and once there, they soon extend to the thoughts he thinks, or is inclined to let other people think. He usually begins by announcing that minds are pretty much alike: what suits one is not far amiss for another; and he ends by worshipping the golden calf that he has set up under the name of his method. If the method were kept where it belonged it might be more tolerable, but it is applied everywhere and makes the name of schoolmaster only more hated than the reality. It is brief for a certain lifeless, artificial, limited, exasperatingly self-satisfied and final way of treating a subject. It is efficient? Oh yes, so is a hot iron. It would be strange if the child's mind did not retain some memory of what it has suffered from.

The teacher owes it to himself to keep his interests fresh. For him, whatever Mr. Howells says to the contrary, the stories are

never all told, the plots inexhaustible. To this end he owes it to himself to bear contradiction. Indeed, contrary to his general reputation, he must learn to enjoy it, and thus to use it. His combination of human traits is certain sooner or later not to fit some young learner. In proportion as the learner is worth while, he will probably want his own way. The economical way is to reduce him at once to silence and submission, but so the teacher takes his place with stop-cocks and safety valves, instead of among creative forces. The teacher owes it to himself to acquire some of the virtues of the man of the world, — his lightness of touch in non-essentials, his easy competence in important interests. Professor Lounsbury speaks none too sharply of "that schoolmaster's English whose professors are now found in every hamlet and cast a gloom over nearly every fireside." We have all suffered from its influence in the sharp-tongued demand for immutable right and wrong in English as it is written, spelled, and pronounced. As a community we are dictionary-ridden. When not fifty per cent of the public know how to use a dictionary, every ten year old carries about a doomsday roll entitled three thousand words usually mispronounced, and every grammar school lad is supplied with notes that make him easily his father's superior in everything connected with the English classics, except the pleasure he had in reading them.

By a wise use of all the means of grace within reach, the teacher must make and keep his own terms with life. Whoever else hopes to enter in maimed, he cannot. Saner, happier, and more hopeful than his fellows he ought to be, for his work depletes, instead of reinforcing him. Somewhere out of it he must have his sources of supply. To this end a teacher's best help is some form of original work. I know that many people believe themselves incapable of originality, but I am inclined to think that originality is largely habit, — a habit of acting upon our suggestions, embodying them promptly, instead of letting them dissipate in aimless threshing of the air. The most extreme instance of the value of such work with which I am acquainted, is Amiel's Journal. He, like us, was a teacher. It does not seem possible that any of us could live a more hedged in existence. As one reads the pitiful record, it is easy to see that the character of a desperate resource gradually drops away from it and the idea of contributing something to the world's thought through its pages comes to console and heal. This was the most shadowy and attenuated form that use could take on, yet it stood

between Amiel and self-contempt. In the end the unique faithfulness of his transcription of himself must have begun to be evident to him and to give some hint of the moral values it represented. Without this the infinite pathos of his last hours would have been infinite tragedy, their twilight the blackness of darkness. On the 10th of April he writes: "Visit to —. She read over to me letters of 1844–1845, — letters of mine. So much promise to end in so meagre a result! What creatures we are! I shall end like the Rhine, lost among the sands, and the hour is close by when my thread of water will have disappeared." Many a disappointed life might find its key here. For it is unnatural to watch the dissipation of one's powers without poignant regret. Some record, some monument, the intelligence seems to demand. A monument more lasting than brass, even though a very small one, it ought to be every teacher's right to leave behind him. As a matter of fact I believe that a great many more people would be geniuses if they treated themselves like geniuses. Schopenhauer does not put it too strongly when he says, "In order to have original, uncommon, and perhaps even immortal thoughts, it is enough to estrange oneself so fully from the world of things for a few moments, that the most ordinary objects and events appear quite new and unfamiliar. In this way their true nature is disclosed."

The problems of method in discipline and teaching need well-digested treatment from all competent sources. Our text-book list is far too short and yet many of the books need revision, while some of them ought to be replaced by better organized, more thoroughly sifted treatment of their material. On this subject I speak with greatest interest. I feel that our teaching all along the line is extravagant of the student's time, and yet reform must come from the teacher's themselves. The public will never demand changes of whose need it is only vaguely conscious and in lines of work where it feels no competence. The daily experience of teachers for good or evil ought to be sharply determinative on a thousand points of requirement where now the whole profession make a treadmill of the years, teaching wearily and heartlessly, losing sight at last perhaps of their own better judgment. The silent revolt of successive generations of teachers ought to have more to show for itself. And it would if teachers allowed themselves the luxury of a solitary declaration of independence. What does not society in the United States owe to the diary keeping propensity of the Adamses? Even in

comparative youth they seem to have felt the need of such means of expression. And who shall say that their extraordinary persistence of type and force of character has not owed much to their indulgence of a taste which must often have seemed unremunerative in results of a practical sort? At the risk of being accused of mistaking the cause for effect in the relation between self-reliance and some such resource as I have been describing, I am inclined to emphasize very strongly the steadying, strengthening influence of such use of a part of one's time as will bring the mind out of relation with others and into relation with itself. At any rate, few families in the United States have maintained family traits as the Adamses have done, and few families have kept diaries so religiously or possessed so eminently the power of self withdrawal.

It is a bad day for a teacher when he finds that his total power is concerned and occupied in the business of teaching. Absorption under such circumstances is only another name for dissipation. The first step in self-redemption may be, as I have suggested, keeping a diary. Better for us to pet our individuality a little than starve it out altogether. But we are not shut up to this. There is a world of work lying around us to be done. To this work we stand in a variety of relations, all of them giving scope for energy and leading to usefulness. In the first place the modern principle of coöperation has done more to render our schools uniform in mediocre attainments than to put the highest grade of work within the reach of all. Without laying claim to genius or a high degree of originality even, a teacher might save his soul alive and confer lasting benefits on his profession by exercising his judgment and industry for its benefit. Information that has been of use for one set of classes ought not to require repeated collection. When one thinks of the vast amount of time and labor thus expended, the importance of a reformation becomes evident. Something of this sort is going on in all the professions. Under its influence petty self-sufficiency gives way to a use of means held in common. Information is pooled and men are expected to have it at command. Suppose every mathematician should make his own table of logarithms, and suppose he should insist that his work was more individual, independent, and valuable on that account? Something very like this is what we teachers are doing. But there are signs of better times. Carlyle's wrath at a book without an index was so deep mouthed that it could hardly be ineffectual; his reverence for an honest index was sincere.

We have been gradually educated to a respect for the middle man in literature and commerce. The Dictionary of Authors, Poole's Index, the great dictionaries and cyclopedias, are monuments to-day, not of genius, but if a kind of coöperation quite impossible if men had not taken up a new interpretation of individuality. An admirable sample of this sort of work is to be found in the Guide to the Literature of Aesthetics by C. M. Gayley and F. N. Scott. An extract from the preface will give an idea of the spirit in which they worked and will show what benefits are likely to accrue to others who may so occupy themselves. They say: "Neither exhaustiveness nor ideal completeness of classification is claimed for this work. It is mainly a list of the books consulted in two libraries during the preparation of lectures on Aesthetics and of a text-book on Literary Criticism. Whatever claim to consideration it may possess must be based on the fact that most of the works cited have been found valuable for the college classes of one or the other of the compilers, and that the more important subject matter has been indicated by definite references to volume and page." This volume so modestly described by its authors saves an incalculable amount of time to any student of the subject. Now it is hardly to be doubted that a large quantity of material of this sort exists in the note books and memories of many of our profession. There can be no manner of doubt, either, that many of us would think the better of ourselves for doing such a piece of work. It might be the center of energy for more and possibly better.

But still there is other harvesting in our fields. Professor Lounsbury of the Yale Scientific School has just given us an example of what may be done in an active professional career of great laboriousness. I would gladly write a panegyric on Professor Lounsbury's Chaucer, if it were properly within the scope of this paper. Among the many excellent things his book does, it puts the editor of texts, the compiler of information, the middleman of literature, more nearly in his rightful place than does any other book I have read. It may be described as the apotheosis of the editor. It makes us familiar with his virtues when he is good, and indignant at his vices when he is worthless. We learn to pity the foolish editor who has no reason for being, and to hate the one who would better never have been born. In the midst of our varied impressions it is borne in upon us that we would do well to edit something ourselves. Experience has shown us that extraordinary eloquence or remark-

able parts of any sort are not requisite to work of this sort. But once done, the performer, in an old phrase, feels his parts. Besides the work of collating and adjusting material, there is an equally important one in directing and forming opinion. We cannot disguise from ourselves that the present is a time of crisis in education. There is need of intelligence to keep the enormous body of opinion from running into intellectual riot. Nobody can so well serve as moderators as teachers. But they can do it only by accurate exposition and patient argument. Work of the kind provided by the Educational Review or School and College ought to claim attention from teachers who now feel cabined and confined in high schools and colleges. It is really almost as important for a teacher to have been in print on some practical subject as for a soldier to have been under fire.

The time will come, I fancy, when the man who does not, cannot do some sort of original work will not be eligible as a teacher any more than a man who cannot see the value of precedent would do for a lawyer. The value of occupation of this sort is suggested too when one considers that a teacher frequently represents himself more fully in what is not immediately connected with his work. Professor Wendell's Cotton Mather is more to his credit than his English composition. It is said that Queen Victoria was so pleased with Alice in Wonderland that she wrote to the author requesting him to send her his next book. In obedience to the royal command he sent her one of those characteristically thin, slabsided treatises on Quaternaries. The first lady of the British Empire was proably no more surprised than any of us on first hearing that Lewis Carroll was a professor of mathematics. Such facts seem to show that what I am urging is not hostile but friendly to the concentrated and specialized interests of our day. The much abused modern biography supplies me with a case in point. Charles Darwin lived a life of extraordinarily exclusive devotion to scientific pursuits. It is interesting to read his account of the conditions under which his theories took form. I doubt whether there is on record an instance of a man with so much to say who found the task of saying it so phenomenally difficult. He say: "I have as much difficulty as ever in expressing myself clearly and concisely, and this difficulty has caused me very great loss of time. There seems to be a sort of fatality in my mind, leading me to put at first my statement or proposition in a wrong or awkward form. Formerly I used to think

about my sentences before writing them down, but for several years I have found that it saves time to scribble in a vile hand whole pages as quickly as I possibly can, and then correct deliberately. Sentences thus scribbled down are often better ones than I could have written deliberately. I have said that in one respect my mind has changed during the last twenty or thirty years. Up to the age of thirty or beyond it, poetry of many kinds, such as the works of Milton, Gray, Byron, Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Shelly, gave me great pleasure — but now for many years I cannot endure to read a line of poetry. I have also almost lost my taste for pictures and music. My mind seems to have become a machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts; but why this should have caused the atrophy of that part of the brain alone on which the higher tastes depend, I cannot conceive. If I had my life to live again I would have made it a rule to read some poetry and listen to some music at least once every week; for perhaps the parts of my brain now atrophied would then have been kept active through use. The loss of these tastes is a loss of happiness, and may possibly be injurious to the intellect, and more probably to the moral character, by enfeebling the emotional part of our nature." Darwin evidently saw very clearly one loss that he had sustained, but apparently he did not suspect any connection between his increasing callousness in aesthetics and his difficulty in composition. The connection here is perfectly clear to me. Composition must be almost impossible where the sense of form is so nearly destroyed as in Darwin's case, and the wonder is that even his perseverance should have succeeded. Compare for instance Darwin's written style with that of Huxley, or Tyndall, merely as an instrument of science; compare the interests and occupations of these three men, and finally take into account what may be called the vital tone, the pleasure each got out of life, irrespective of his daily task, and my point is clear.

The teacher owes it to himself to remember that though through the smallest window he can look out into the infinite, peep-holes ought not to satisfy him. And the times are ripe. Without putting around it the barriers of a trades union or a guild, the teacher's profession is ceasing to be a stepping-stone of young lawyers and politicians on their way to success, or the refuge of the timid and unsuccessful, or the treadmill of ardent and aspiring natures. We owe to ourselves prompt recognition of wider opportunities as they pre-

sent themselves, and ready acceptance of the responsibilities to be discharged by the human being as well as by the teacher. We owe ourselves hopes as well as discipline, development rather than drudgery, inspiration far more than devotion, that our lives may be an example instead of a warning.

APPORTIONMENT OF LITERATURE FUND BY THE REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY, JANUARY, 1892.

For the past six years we have published the annual apportionment of the Literature Fund to the Secondary Schools of the University of New York. The method of distribution has recently undergone radical changes, so that it is impossible to present the items exactly as before; we have therefore indicated only two things, in the right hand column the amount received on preliminary certificates, that is of students who have passed the preliminary examination and pursued higher studies during the year. In the left hand column will be found the amount received by each school for the completion of advanced examinations. No mention is here made of the money apportioned for books and apparatus. The amount assigned in preliminary certificates is based on actual attendance, two cents a day being allowed, so that a pupil attending three terms draws proportionately more than one attending only one. In past years all pupils attending thirteen weeks or more have received the same sum whether in school thirteen or forty weeks. The amount per pupil in 1891 was $3.70; in 1890, $4.30; in 1889, $5.18; in 1888, $5.67.

Adams Collegiate Institute	300	$241 30
Addison Union School	213	148 50
Adelphi Academy	——	229 10
Afton Union School	80	62 90
Akron Union School	10	45 12
Albany Academy	——	136 10
Albany High School	1189	1936 90

Albion Union School	293	280 94
Alexander Union School	5	6 00
Alfred University	5	420 84
A. M. Chesbrough Seminary	20	25 44
Amsterdam Academy	—	3 74
Angola Union School	30	32 76
Arcade Union School	64	67 80
Argyle Academy	27	19 82
Attica Union School	85	110 00
Auburn High School	—	10 96
Ausable Forks Union School	15	6 88
Avon Union School	88	55 74
Bainbridge Union School	69	92 32
Baldwinsville Free Academy	269	209 30
Batavia Union School	342	341 00
Bath-on-the-Hudson Union School	—	14 36
Belmont Union School	60	35 56
Binghamton High School	—	969 92
Boonville Union School	188	111 18
Brasher and Stockholm Union School	30	46 66
Brewster Union School	40	49 08
Brookfield Union School	115	83 04
Buffalo High School	2833	2839 64
Buffalo Seminary	—	23 64
Cambridge Union School	14	31 74
Camden Union School	84	123 28
Canajoharie Union School	80	94 00
Canandaigua Academy	232	152 38
Canandaigua Union School	384	348 20
Canaseraga Union School	110	53 46
Canastota Union School	103	95 60
Candor Free Academy	81	59 46
Canisteo Academy	444	172 38
Canton Union School	155	202 18
Carthage Union School	20	93 18
Cary Collegiate Seminary	63	38 74
Castile Union School	24	28 90
Catskill Free Academy	95	127 34
Cattaraugus Union School	124	111 44
Cazenovia Seminary	210	386 44
Central Square Union School	45	44 56
Chamberlain Institute, Randolph	70	123 40
Champlain Union School	—	4 00
Chateaugay Union School	10	29 04
Chatham Union School	85	105 08
Cherry Valley Academy	10	5 70
Chester Union School	20	27 96

Christian Brothers' Academy, Albany	60	40 30
Cincinnatus Academy	20	23 20
Claverack Academy and Hudson River Institute	100	88 84
Clayton Union Schoo	89	39 94
Clinton Literary Institute	45	98 70
Clyde High School	154	261 96
Cobleskill Union School	270	128 02
Colgate Academy	——	58 50
Cook Academy	334	233 50
Cooperstown Union School	232	167 86
Copenhagen Union School	30	69 90
Corning Free Academy	141	248 56
Coxsackie Union School	10	38 30
Crown Point Union School	45	54 32
Cuba Union School	99	108 10
Dansville Union School	235	165 34
De Lancey School	——	22 18
Delaware Academy	227	145 48
Delaware Literary Institute	243	139 42
Deposit Union School	65	103 66
De Ruyter Union School	75	60 92
De Veaux School	40	24 86
Drum Hill School	5	16 38
Dryden Union School	106	58 32
Dundee Preparatory School	189	138 46
Dunkirk Union School	138	191 20
East Aurora Union School	236	101 30
East Bloomfield Union School	20	15 72
East Springfield Academy	49	29 18
East Syracuse High School	20	56 92
Egberts High School	88	206 46
Elizabethtown Union School	——	9 58
Ellenville Union School	189	184 86
Ellicottsville Union School	——	17 60
Ellington Union School	9	42 80
Elmira Free Academy	623	864 62
Evans Academy	——	6 28
Fairfield Seminary	240	168 24
Fair Haven Union School	120	39 80
Fairport Union School	353	240 62
Fayetteville Union School	112	67 00
Flushing High School	283	241 08
Fonda Union School	5	43 50
Forestville Free Academy	104	103 04
Fort Covington Free Academy	49	16 22
Fort Edward Classical Institute	24	55 68
Fort Edward Union School	5	28 12

Frankfort Union School	60	39 26
Franklin Academy, Malone	304	249 72
Franklin Academy and Union School	92	50 80
Friendship Academy	14	47 70
Fulton Union School	283	292 38
Genesee Valley Seminary and Union School	85	84 34
Genesee Wesleyan Seminary	115	318 30
Geneva Classical and Union School	160	181 34
Gilbertsville Academy	80	46 62
Glens Falls Academy	233	142 60
Glens Falls Union School	115	117 56
Gloversville Union School	68	226 10
Goshen Union School	15	27 52
Gouverneur Seminary	304	242 52
Gowanda Union School	59	99 00
Greene Union School	109	105 76
Greenport Union School	20	30 28
Greenville Academy	20	30 64
Greenwich Union School	155	136 92
Griffith Institute and Union School	262	212 92
Groton Union School	172	81 90
Hamburg Union School	158	94 02
Hammondsport Union School	20	81 82
Hancock Union School	173	74 10
Hartwick Seminary	212	100 70
Haverling Union School	669	262 14
Herkimer Union School	115	113 78
Hogansburg Academy	25	40 20
Holland Patent Union School	76	102 90
Holley Union School	10	30 20
Homer Academy and Union School	157	120 48
Hoosick Falls Union School	5	179 84
Hornell Free Academy	452	481 74
Horseheads Union School	——	73 10
Houghton Seminary	79	84 06
Hudson High School	129	152 92
Huntington Union School	206	172 44
Ilion Union School	327	216 34
Ingham University	80	44 80
Ithaca High School	808	880 78
Ives Seminary	39	40 68
Jamestown High School	557	575 10
Johnstown High School	120	241 90
Jordan Free Academy	50	112 26
Keeseville Union School	10	40 42
Kinderhook Academy	——	2 02
Kingston Free Academy	526	439 48

Lansingburgh Academy	331	157 38
Leavenworth Institue	135	106 40
Leonardsville Union School	69	30 48
Le Roy Academic Institute	148	117 44
Limestone Union School	——	41 30
Lisle Union School	5	8 46
Little Falls Union School	270	344 10
Liverpool Union School	5	16 54
Lockport Union School	264	609 88
Lowville Academy	191	73 20
Lyons Union School	321	234 64
Macedon Academy	175	62 42
McGrawville Union School	10	14 42
Madison Union School	——	15 02
Manlius Union School	175	124 42
Marathon Union School	39	26 42
Marion Collegiate Institute	219	116 22
Marshall Seminary	9	8 52
Massena Union School	45	49 70
Mayville Union School	35	49 98
Mechanicville Union School	49	40 68
Medina Free Academy	230	230 94
Mexico Academy	100	119 82
Middleburgh Union School	110	103 96
Middlebury Academy and Union School	25	29 70
Mohawk Union School	20	30 38
Montgomery Union School	40	68 06
Moravia Union School	131	125 32
Morris Union School	167	99 28
Mount Morris Union School	112	69 52
Mt. St. Mary's Academy	5	16 68
Munro Collegiate Institute	84	104 62
Mynderse Academy	517	382 42
Naples Union School	175	89 52
Newark Union School	183	192 80
Newark Valley Union School	80	75 02
New Berlin Union School	50	113 24
New Rochelle Union School	30	118 64
Niagara Falls Union School	193	147 20
Nichols Union School	30	36 88
North Brookfield Union School	10	28 62
North Tarrytown Union School	——	3 76
North Tonawanda Union School	55	73 90
Norwich Union School	190	264 26
Norwood Union School	102	72 30
Nunda Union School	78	57 08
Nyack Union School	——	5 20

Ogdensburg Free Academy	178	331 42
Olean Union School	235	208 80
Oneida Union School	215	197 36
Oneonta Union School	118	90 92
Onondaga Free Academy	10	99 28
Oswego High School	205	337 94
Ovid Union School	94	68 76
Owego Free Academy	398	417 88
Oxford Academy	205	203 72
Painted Post Union School	133	55 10
Palatine Bridge Union School	50	17 92
Palmyra Classical Union School	280	225 04
Parish Union School	90	62 92
Parker Union School	158	89 86
Peekskill Military Academy	—	5 00
Penn Yan Academy	397	373 36
Perry Union School	202	152 42
Phelps Union and Classical School	89	102 60
Phoenix Union School	149	114 88
Pike Seminary	138	110 06
Plattsburgh High School	5	270 86
Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn	—	29 96
Pompey Academy	9	39 90
Port Byron Free School and Academy	123	72 00
Port Henry Union School	75	97 58
Port Jervis Union School	595	360 40
Portville Union School	86	43 62
Poughkeepsie High School	404	383 38
Pulaski Academy	123	103 64
Putnam Union School	5	47 46
Red Creek Union Seminary	143	82 98
Rhinebeck Union School	45	19 08
Richfield Springs Union School	420	160 88
Rochester Free Academy	784	2386 92
Rome Free Academy	450	447 56
Round Lake Institute	—	3 76
Rushford Union School	35	52 64
Rushville Union School	20	29 24
Sag Harbor Union School	5	30 50
St. Bernard's Academy	76	62 80
St. John's Catholic Academy	226	186 24
St. Johnsville Union School	266	57 36
St. Mary's Academy	54	78 42
St. Mary's Catholic Institute	70	93 08
St. Peter's Academy	108	33 16
St. Regis Falls Union School	—	3 26
Salamanca Union School	148	155 18

Sandy Creek Union School	214	109 66
Sandy Hill Union School	208	130 00
Saratoga Springs Union School	30	363 42
Sauquoit Academy	35	19 66
Schenectady Union Classical Institute	——	450 28
Schenevus Union School	158	79 74
Schoharie Union School	35	52 70
Schuylerville Union School	95	101 08
Seymour Smith Academy	——	42 70
Sherburne Union School	69	48 14
Sherman Academy	155	63 08
Sherman Union School	222	127 00
Sidney Union School	223	87 04
Silver Creek Union School	149	86 40
Sinclairville Union School	209	90 32
Skaneateles Union School	167	225 52
Smithville Union School	——	9 46
Sodus Academy	85	139 50
South Side Union School	50	63 86
Spencer Union School	231	114 40
Stamford Seminary and Union School	140	124 08
Starkey Seminary	145	138 28
Staten Island Academy	20	73 08
Stillwater Union School	80	121 10
Suspension Bridge Union School	55	43 62
Syracuse High School	——	2438 92
Ten Broeck Free Academy	181	122 26
Ticonderoga Union School	30	58 60
Tonawanda Union School	20	46 10
Troy Academy	10	53 94
Troy Female Seminary	49	87 24
Troy High School	449	696 98
Trumansburg Union School	45	68 10
Ulster Free Academy	275	162 92
Unadilla Academy	70	76 56
Union Academy of Belleville	163	100 80
Union Springs Union School	9	31 12
Union Union School	——	8 42
Utica Free Academy	1077	706 32
Valatie Union School	20	34 68
Vernon Union School	10	30 74
Wallkill Free Academy	301	325 86
Walton Union School	200	172 62
Walworth Academy	35	23 06
Warrensburgh Union School	34	17 08
Warsaw Union School	323	171 84
Warwick Institute	140	107 24

Washington Academy	50	48 30
Waterford Union School	143	130 30
Waterloo Union School	202	133 64
Watertown High School	207	501 62
Waterville Union School	114	127 24
Watkins Academic Union School	78	96 24
Waverly High School	176	250 80
Webster Union School	49	57 30
Weedsport Union School	233	165 76
Wellsville Union School	175	89 00
Westchester Union School No. 1	—	29 30
Westchester Union School No. 3	—	9 42
Westfield Academy and Union School	288	193 08
West Hebron Union School	5	14 68
Westport Union School	80	78 52
West Winfield Union School	180	86 84
Whitehall Union School	108	71 16
Whitney's Point Union School	50	73 08
Wilson Academy	169	92 02
Wilson Union School	5	19 12
Windsor Union School	125	67 02
Woodhull Union School	15	—
Worcester Union School	50	61 00
Yates Union School	99	85 74
	43,690	$48,332 78

EXAMINATIONS "FOR REVENUE ONLY."

A. C. HILL, HAVANA, N. Y.

THE Regents of the University of the State of New York have devised and put into operation a system of examinations that are now the accepted standard of excellence in more than three hundred secondary schools in the state. We are not aware that a similar uniform examination on so large a scale is being tried anywhere else in the nation. The experiment, therefore, is an interesting one, and well worth the study of teachers. Whether this system, or any system of examinations on so large a scale, can be a beneficial edu-

cational force, is a question upon which men will differ. Few teachers believe that a system of examinations can be devised so perfect as to furnish a satisfactory standard for testing the attainments of pupils, unaided by the daily work of the class-room under the guidance of instructors that thoroughly understand their business. If the examinations were the chief thing, and the instruction only a convenient means of fitting pupils for them, the teaching that enabled pupils to pass the required examinations in the shortest time would be best. But we understand that teaching, and not examining, is the main work of schools. If, however, any system of examinations can meet the requirements, the one devised by the Regents ought to fairly claim that merit. For it has been a development, and represents the mature judgment and experience of its projectors. It has now reached the last stage of its growth, as the schools have been notified that no material change will be made for five years at least. While the system was in a state of ferment, criticism was freely sought and listened to with patience. Now the schools must accept the system as it is, or give up the examinations altogether. Agitation for a change would, therefore, at this time be premature, if not impertinent. It may not be regarded as untimely, however, and certainly is in the interests of good teaching, to point out the defects of these examinations as an educational influence.

There is one radical defect, which by some strange fatuity has been cherished as one of its chief virtues. We refer to the pernicious idea of payment by results. It has been said, indeed, that the system was invented as a basis for the distribution of the so-called "Literature Fund." The schools have been constantly asking for an increase of the fund, and the Regents have been studying how to distribute it in a way to stimulate the activity of the schools. The result has been the elaborate system we have to-day.

The method of distributing this fund is thus described in a circular issued by the Regents: "Schools are allowed $5 for each Junior certificate, or higher academic credential issued, with $5 extra for the first diploma, and a second $5 extra for the first classical diploma issued to each student. The school is thus apportioned $5 when the Junior certificate is drawn, $5 more for the thirty count, $5 more for the forty count, and for fifty counts $5 if a fifty count certificate is earned, $10 if an English or academic diploma is earned, $15 if a classical diploma is earned."

Is this a stimulus that will lead to good results; will it encourage better teaching, and better work on the part of students? Those who have been so active in developing the system must think so. We feel some doubt on this point, however. Indeed, it seems to us that the opposite effect is already noticeable, and will become more apparent as time advances.

In the first place, it seems almost self-evident that the standard of excellence in the schools will be lowered. Examinations made out for so large a number of schools cannot have in view the best pupils nor the best teaching. They must be set for the average school. The natural tendency will be to bring all schools to this average standard or below it. The required percentage of correct answers is seventy-five per cent. This minimum entitles a pupil to a pass card in any subject, and a certain number of pass cards entitles him to a certificate or diploma. The diploma admits him into any college in the state and into some outside of it. It naturally follows that the chief aim of many pupils is to get, with as little effort as possible, enough of these pass cards to entitle him to a diploma. He does not care particularly whether his standing is seventy-five per cent or ninety-five per cent, if his paper is only accepted. It is of little avail that the teacher is dissatisfied with work marked seventy-five per cent by the Regents' standard; the pupil has "passed," and must be allowed to go on to something else. More than this, if a pupil by a little outside reading can pass some of the easier subjects, as political economy, civics, or moral philosophy, without having studied them in class, it must be taken as evidence of sufficient knowledge of the subjects. If the teacher, with a higher ideal of the mastery of a subject, protests too much, the pupil goes to some other school where no such troublesome scruples exist.

Again, the system offers every inducement to the teacher to be satisfied with a low standard in the examinations. The more pass cards and credentials obtained the greater honor to the teacher and to the school. In many schools the teacher's tenure of office depends in a large measure on the number who pass these examinations. Thus he feels compelled to do, not what is best for the intellectual growth of his pupils, but what will best fit them to answer the questions that are likely to be asked in the examinations. The crowning villainy of the system of payment by results is that

teachers and schools have a financial interest in the outcome of the examinations. Many teachers will resent the intimation that this consideration influences their teaching in the least. It is, however, a consideration too intimately connected with human interests to be wholly eliminated from the mind of the most conscientious teacher and it has a large place in the minds of many. We can conceive of no single thing that will do so much to lower the standard of teaching and put a premium on "cramming" and "coaching" as this device for distributing the funds at the disposal of the Regents. Every good teacher knows that a single written examination is a very fallible test of a pupil's knowledge of a subject. It is not a very unusual thing for a student unfit to enter college to pass the required examinations while one with a much better knowledge of the subject fails. The writer has a personal knowledge of an instance in which a boy made up a term's work in French in two weeks and passed a satisfactory examination in it. Would any one maintain that he had received the equivalent of a term's work in the class-room? Many of the students in a class in Cæsar can pass the examination set by the Regents after thirteen weeks study. We know a school in the state, where, it is said, only thirteen weeks are given to Cæsar and the same length of time to Virgil; at the expiration of which time students pass the Regents' examinations. Many cases might be cited to show that these examinations can be passed after a very superficial study of the subjects. They are chiefly tests of memory rather than of mental progress. All of which goes to show that no single examination, whether made out by the Regents of the University or by college authorities, is a sufficient test of a student's mastery of a subject. This fact, taken in connection with the inducements held out to both pupils and teachers to make the getting of pass cards the chief end of school work, goes far to destroy the value of the system as an educational influence.

The Regents have prepared a syllabus indicating the nature and extent of the work required in each subject. This syllabus enables teachers to prepare pupils for the examinations in much shorter time than they could without it. On special subjects outlines are printed by school book publishers, which on four short pages furnish pupils with enough information, it is said, to enable them to answer any questions likely to be asked in the examination. The relative

merits of text-books are coming to be judged by the way in which they meet the requirements of these examinations. Thus the whole machinery of instruction is more and more being turned in the direction of "grinding out" pass cards. It is said that some "coach" in the vicinity of Boston advertises that he can fit boys for the Harvard examinations in one year. If this is true, it means that by years of careful study of the idiosyncrasies of the Harvard professors, he has learned to predict what questions are to be asked. A careful student of the Regents' examinations learns to forecast the nature of the examination for which he must prepare his pupils. The best class-room work does not always mean the best showing at the Regents' tests. The eagerness to secure results from the office in Albany is, from an educational standpoint, to be deplored. It is, perhaps, too much to say that the evils are all caused by the financial consideration involved, but it is safe to say that they are greatly aggravated by it. The examinations in themselves are good, but only so long as they are the servants and not the masters. If no pecuniary influences were mixed up with them they would serve a far higher purpose.

The tendency of the system is to reduce the function of the teacher to asking questions and tallying results. The vital element in teaching is lost sight of and the genuine teacher is disheartened by the multitude of petty details that the system demands; and either leaves the profession in despair or loses spirit and is content to be a mere automaton, drawing a salary.

The schools will not generally break away from the system. A few schools may have the courage to do so, but they will be pointed at as pharisaical. This loyalty of the schools to the bed of Procrustes is largely influenced by the money consideration.

It would be well for other states that may be inclined to adopt the New York system of secondary schools to avoid this error of providing for payment by results, which is so great an obstacle to the best results in teaching.

COMMUNICATIONS.

To the Editor of THE ACADEMY:—

I have recently read that the young ladies of Wellesley College have a debating society in which politics are discussed. I do not know that the statement is true, but if it is, I think it is to be regretted. Debate as a method in education has the sanction of centuries to support it, and undoubtedly it is good training for persons who need to talk on their feet, and a stimulus to the investigation of questions which have a twofold aspect and cannot be answered by appeal to authority or well recognized facts. But a question arises whether its usefulness in producing alertness of mind and stimulating investigation may not be more than offset by its tendency to strengthen the tenacity with which opinions are held, and increase narrowness of intellectual vision. Methods of education should be adopted with a view to counteract the natural proclivity of the mind to see things from one point of view only, and to insist on the correctness and importance of that view. We are all by nature partisans, and slow to learn that truth is not exclusively in any system, doctrine, theory or method, that in all matters of controversy the truth lies between or outside of the position of both disputants. For most of us a long course of training is necessary before we can suspend judgment or admit that another sees as clearly as we see, even though his conclusions and beliefs are antagonistic to our own. Now debate will not help along this training. It is not carried on for the purpose of discovering truth or increasing knowledge, for it is assumed on both sides that truth is already discovered and knowledge gained. The debater must hug his beliefs, and the more they are attacked the more closely he must cherish them. He must not listen to his antagonist with the judicial poise of a seeker after knowledge, but with the keenness and alertness of a fencer who must protect himself and disarm another. If, then, discussion has any educational value or effect, it is in the wrong direction. We all lament the difficulty of talking politics, philosophy, or religion with those who differ from us. We are almost certain to grow warm, and to end by striving to silence our colloquist, or to show him that he is a poor fellow

to hold such views. We long for the talker who gives us attention and when he speaks, takes up and carries forward the thought or proposition, if not in substantial agreement with us, at least with respect for our position. We can certainly see that happiness would be increased and knowledge make more rapid progress if other person's minds were more receptive, and their tempers more tolerant. All the forces of education will not counteract the natural tendency of the mind to dogmatize and worship half gods, but they should be directed to this end, and whatever works with inborn Philistinism should be avoided as pernicious. E. M. H.

We are in receipt of the following announcement from the General Secretary of the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, Philadelphia:—

The rapid progress of the movement known as University Extension and its adoption within the last two years in nearly every state of the Union, have made clearly manifest the need of better opportunities for training and preparation for those looking forward to the work of Extension lecturing. In answer to many demands the American Society for the Extension of University Teaching has accordingly resolved to open in Philadelphia on October 1, 1892, a Seminary for the study of American educational problems, and for the training of University Extension lecturers and organizers.

The work of the Seminary will include the whole range of University Extension teaching so presented and discussed that the members will be prepared to judge wisely as to the methods best adapted to any given set of conditions. In addition to this technical instruction there will be given a series of lectures on the educational system of the United States. The aim of this part of the work is to offer for the first time in the history of American education, an opportunity for the man or woman who desires to be a real leader in educational thought and action, to put himself in touch with the latest and best thought.

The Seminary will be under the direction of Professor Edmund J. James, President of the American Society, assisted by leading educators of this country and Europe. Among those who will lecture before the Seminary are: Hon. William T. Harris, U. S. Commissioner of Education; Dr. James McAlister, President of the Drexel Institute; Dr. Charles DeGarmo, President of Swarth-

more College; Dr. Isaac Sharpless, President of Haverford College; Professor Simon N. Patten, of the University of Pennsylvania; Principal George M. Philips, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.; Mr. A. E. Winship, editor of The New England Journal of Education; Mr. Ray Green Huling, editor of School and College, and Rev. Hudson Shaw, of Oxford University, England.

More than a hundred leading American colleges and universities are coöperating in the work of the American Society and are looking to it for such a solution as is here presented of the various needs of Extension Teaching.

GEORGE F. JAMES.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Etudes et Etudiants. Par Ernest Lavisse, Professeur à la Sorbonne. Paris, Armand Colin & Cie.

This volume is made up largely of addresses delivered to students at the Sorbonne and elsewhere, and is as equel to the author's *Questions d'enseignement national* published about six years ago. They are bound together by the thread of a common interest in education, which gives them unity.

The first chapter contains an appreciative tribute to the memory of Albert Dumont, one of the reformers of the higher education in France.

The subject of the second chapter is classical education, a plea *pro domo nostra*. The author's standpoint will be most clearly seen from a short quotation: "I do not like the house for its own sake, as an old tenant might, neither by an effect of that unconscious vanity which persuades us that the new generations, in order to be well educated, have no resource but to be educated by us in the same way in which we ourselves were. If I believed the house unhealthful, my pickaxe would be not the least active among its destroyers. But I am and remain convinced that the old literatures are the best means of education for the mind, because they are beautiful and because they are simple."

He is not willing to admit that the reverses of France in 1870 are due to the study of Greek and Latin in French schools or in German schools. He is disposed to believe that the Emperor William, Bismarck, and von Moltke are entitled to some credit for the result. He sees, however, that reforms are desirable in the encyclopedic programmes which burden the lives of youth under the present system; that it is difficult to make the benefits of classical culture appreciated by those who have not received them, as it is difficult to give to near-sighted people an idea of the pleasure experienced in contemplating a broad landscape.

The most interesting chapter from a pedagogical point of view is the third, which includes four addresses to the students of the Sorbonne at the opening sessions of the years 1885–1888. They discuss such subjects as examinations and studies, professional and scientific education, personal activity, and the old and the new Sorbonne. They explain the changes and innovations proposed by the authorities, and are full of encouragement and stimulus to the students, both native and foreign. Attention is called to two capital errors which weigh on our minds and compromise the success of our efforts. These are, the belief that studies end with college, where, in order to teach everything, we have put students under the regime of the encyclopedia, and the pretension that all studies are verified and tested by the examinations. Secondary education is not an encyclopedia, but a method; not an end, but a preparation; not the battle itself, but the drill which makes the good soldier.

Science in the provinces, especially at Lyons, is the subject of the fourth chapter. While Paris is the centre of literary and scientific activity for France, there is room and need for universities in some of the larger provincial cities. A country has need of learned men and thinkers who have no other profession than that of knowledge and of thought.

The fifth and sixth chapters were addressed to student-associations. These, although only recently organized, are already popular. These addresses are in a familiar tone, showing the good-fellowship which can exist between professors and students, and are full of advice as to the duties of students to themselves, to each other, and to France. Athletic sports are encouraged, and social reunions, as helpful in intellectual labors. Large stress is laid on patriotism. Over all other duties is that of loving and honoring

France, yet the virtues of wisdom, moderation, tolerance, love of truth, of liberty, of humanity, must be earnestly and faithfully sought.

Pedagogie Historique d'apres les principaux Pedagogues, Philosophes et Moralistes. Par Paul Rousselot, ancien Professeur agrégé de Philosophie, Inspecteur honoraire d' Académie, Lauréat de l' Académie Française. Paris: Librairie Ch. Delagrave. 1891.

The object of this little book is "to collect from the almost innumerable books of the professional teachers and of the philosophers and the moralists who, in all times, have written on man, on society and on life, a historic pedagogy which should furnish, not a regular succession of lessons all drawn up, but a regular succession of documents on the subject of each lesson. To go in search of these documents is to undertake an exploration fertile in instructive discoveries, in agreeable surprises, but also in difficulties which lie less in the length of the road than in its nature." The students in normal schools, preparing for examinations in pedagogy, will here find quotations and references which will save much laborious search.

"There is a kind of profit in following historically the progress of doctrines and processes in the principal questions of education and teaching. In general, a science and the history of that science are more than distinct, they are independent of each other. One may be a mathematician without knowing that the application of algebra to geometry did not exist before Viète and Descartes, nor the infinitesimal calculus before Newton and Leibnitz; and one may know these things without being a mathematician. But pedagogy is inseparable from its own history; the history of education forms an integral part of the science of education."

In M. Rousselot's book, therefore, we shall find antiquity represented by the founders of the Greek philosophy, who were also the founders of pedagogic philosophy; Socrates, speaking by the mouth of Xenophon and of Plato; Plato, speaking in his own name; the universal Aristotle; and later, Cicero, disciple of the Greeks; the Stoic Seneca; Marcus Aurelius, Plutarch, Quintilian, and an almost unbroken series reaching to the present.

In these two hundred and eighty-eight pages one hundred and twenty-nine writers are represented. It is interesting to note their distribution by countries or languages: one Sanscrit, the Zend-

Avesta; four Greek; seven Latin; two Swiss; three Dutch; two American (the United States); thirteen British; ten German; and eighty-seven French.

It is not flattering to our national pride to know that "America has no philosophers, she has only practical moralists and pedagogues; but under whatever qualification they are classed, a Channing and a Horace Mann hold their place everywere."

France naturally holds, in M. Rousselot's opinion, the foremost place. French pedagogy is, in his mind, neither idealistic nor positive; it is spiritualistic, i. e., it takes account at once of the spirit and of the body, of the real and the ideal, of liberty and authority, in the measure of the true conditions of nature and of life.

The work consists of an introduction and four parts, divided into chapters. The introduction treats in a general way of education and the science of education, discussing in one hundred and nineteen selections such matters as the importance of education, the object of education, the necessity of a science of education, and the pedagogical basis of such a science. There are, e. g., fifty-four definitions of education and its object, reaching from the Zend-Avesta to Channing.

The first part treats of physical education, considering the duality of human nature, the necessity of physical education, the harmony between the education of the body and that of the mind; of pedagogical hygiene, considering food, clothing, neatness, games, and physical exercises, gymnastics, etc.

The second part treats of intellectual education, involving the principles on which it is based, the education of the senses, attention, memory and the association of ideas, the imagination, abstraction and generalization, judgment and reasoning, and method.

The third part treats of the methods of teaching, involving object lessons; the mother tongue with writing, spelling, reading, composition, grammatical teaching; geography and history; science and higher culture.

The fourth part treats of moral education, involving the moral nature of man, the culture of sensibility, the education of the will, the education of the conscience, and discipline.

The selections are well chosen, and represent, as well as such short extracts can, the development of thought on this, one of the most important subjects which can engage the mind.

An Introduction to the Latin Language. By Maurice C. Hime, M. A., LL. D., Headmaster of Foyle College, Londonderry. Vol. I. Accidence and Prosody. Vol. II. Syntax, etc. London: Simpkins, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co. Dublin: Sullivan, Brothers. 1891.

The preface to the first edition of Dr. Hime's work bears the date 1878. In this, the third edition, the work is for the first time published in two volumes. The first thing that is apt to strike one in turning over the book is its formidable size. A work of nearly 800 octavo pages seems too large a book to set before a beginner. There are, however, some compensating advantages. The print is large and distinct, and the make-up is such that the book is never wearisome to the eye. The paper on which it is printed is of excellent quality, so that the price — 7 s. 6 d. — at which the book is sold seems very low. Again as we observe that the author contemplates a class of boys much younger than the age at which Latin is generally begun in American schools, and that his aim is to provide a grammar sufficient to meet the wants of the pupil through his school course, the size of the book loses most of its terrors.

The author, after an experience of twelve years in using it, claims for his work a saving for the boys in time and money, — in money because this book supplies the place of various exercise books, reading books, and works on prosody, and in time, because after completing the greater part of this work in about eighteen months, the boys pass at once to the reading of a Latin author.

It will perhaps surprise some teachers to learn that in the author's practice this first reading is in the Aeneid, Bk. I. Yet the author is by no means insensible to the objections which may be opposed to such a procedure and contrives very skilfully, it seems to us, to anticipate many of the difficulties. The gain to a young boy in the interest of the subject-matter must be immense, and the difficulties in the way of such a plan, can hardly be so serious as those we experience in making Cæsar's Gallic War the first reading book.

Sensible, we think, is the author's insistence upon the necessity of literalness in the pupils' "rendering of *words*, no matter at what expense (at most, merely temporary) to their English." Every one, we imagine, who has had experience in teaching Latin to very young pupils must be persuaded of the necessity of this, and the practice, in the hands of a skilful teacher, ought to cause no detriment to a boy's English.

The pronunciation which the author adopts is neither the old-fashioned English method nor that of the "syllabus of Latin pronunciation," but in many respects it corresponds with the so-called Roman method, which has become so prevalent in this country; for example, *c* and *g* are always hard, and *t* and *d* are always pure dentals, but *e*, *i*, *j*, and *v*, he would pronounce as in English.

The latter part of the book, pp. 542–665, consists of sixteen chapters on matters of miscellaneous interest, such as the Roman calendar, money, weights, numerals, etc. The treatment of these subjects is much fuller than what is usually found in school grammars. One chapter "On the advantages of Double Translation" is made up entirely of extracts from Ascham's *Schoolmaster*.

It would be possible to find fault with several points of detail; for instance, we think the utility of printing exercises containing examples of faulty syntax very doubtful; but the book shows throughout evidence of careful workmanship and experience in teaching, and there are probably few teachers who would fail to find in it something to interest them.

An Introduction to the Greek Language. By Maurice C. Hime, M. A., LL. D. London: Simpkins, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co. Dublin: Sullivan, Brothers. 1891.

In this work Dr. Hime pursues essentially the same method which he follows in his introduction to Latin. The volume is much briefer than the former work, partly because it does not contain anything corresponding to the appendices which fill out nearly a third of the Latin book.

Doubtless the boy who has mastered the forms and worked through the exercises in this book will be in a position to read intelligently an easy author. There are, however, in this work several points of detail which call for criticism.

The forms in the paradigms do not represent Attic usage nearly so well as this is done in the school grammars in use in this country. In the dual and plural of the present optative active of contract verbs, for example, the long forms are marked as the more usual. This is just the opposite of the truth. Similarly the genitive singular of ἄστυ is given as ἄστεος, though the seventh edition of Liddell and Scott's Lexicon gives it correctly.

On page 169 the length of the last vowel of ἐδείκνυ is explained as resulting from the contraction of a form ἐδείκνυε. In the chapter

on conditional sentences it would have been better to give *si quid habebo, dabo*, as the Latin equivalent of ἐάν τι ἔχω, δώσω, than the rare *si quid habeam dabo.*

The classification of verb forms is old-fashioned and makes the memorizing of the paradigms and of the principal parts much more difficult than it would be, if the author had adopted Curtius's division of the verb into classes according to the formation of the present stem, and exhibited the forms of inflexion by tense systems.

There are Greek and English exercises both on the forms and on the syntax, and these are usually followed by a few sentences which involve errors in accent and syntax. These the pupil is expected to correct. This practice is bad enough in the Latin, but in the Greek by the addition of the wrong accents becomes absolutely distressing.

These wrong accents seem occasionally to have strayed into the regular exercises, but aside from this the work, like the Latin book, appears to be exceptionally free from misprints.

Euripides Cyclops. Edited with an introduction and notes by W. E. Long, M. A. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1891. Price, 60 cents.

This is a convenient school edition of the only extant Satyric drama. The text, which is based upon that of W. Dindorf, is preceded by a brief, but well written introduction, and is followed by forty pages of notes. It is here and there expurgated.

Latin Prose Composition. By George G. Ramsay, M. A., LL. D. Third edition. Vol. I. Syntax. Exercises with notes, vocabulary, and appendix. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1892.

Ramsay's Latin Prose Composition has long been known as a standard work. In preparing the third edition the author has been induced to furnish a Syntax and to add various notes and hints throughout the work. This has led to the rewriting of the entire book, and there lies before us the first volume of the work, which in its completed state the author intends shall be a progressive handbook of Latin Prose Composition. Volume I. is divided into two parts. The first treats of the syntax of the simple sentence; part second, of the compound sentence. Two sets of exercises are given. One, styled easy, is intended as a first course for the use of beginners, and as oral exercises for more advanced pupils, while the other set of exercises introduces the student to more of the difficulties of idiom both in the English and the Latin.

The exercises seem excellently graduated, the notes are very helpful and suggestive, and the author shows a nice feeling for the differencs of idiom in the two languages. An appendix of twenty-four pages contains a very useful summary of "Hints for Elementary Latin Prose Composition." The author promises in Vol. II. a systematic treatment of continuous prose; and in its new form we doubt not his book will be received with even greater favor than heretofore.

The Nuptial Number of Plato: Its Solution and Significance. By James Adam, M. A., Fellow and Tutor of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. London: C. J. Clay & Sons. 1891.

Mr. Adam offers his essay as "a complete solution" of a passage of the Republic VIII. 545 C—547 A, which has been a long-standing puzzle. The work is divided into two parts. In the first the author proceeds by the examination of the Greek text, quoted in the introduction, to determine Plato's number; in the second part, after translating the Greek text, Mr. Adam discusses the significance of the Nuptial Number in its application to Plato's cosmology both in the Republic and in other dialogues. We shall not attempt to sit in judgment either upon the author's exegesis of the Greek text or upon his explanation of the number, but shall leave that to the students of Plato; we have, however, read his essay with pleasure, and recommend it to the lovers of Plato, to whom Mr. Adam dedicates it.

Graduated Passages from Greek and Latin Authors for First Sight Translation. Selected and supplied with short notes for beginners, by H. Bendall, M. A., and C. E. Laurence, B. A. Part I. Easy. Cambridge: at the University Press. 1891.

This little book contains thirty-three Latin and twenty-nine Greek selections. None occupy more than a page, and they are from various sources, both prose and verse. The notes, which are printed at the end, give first the source of the extract, then a brief statement of the context from which it is taken, and last the meanings of the more unusual words. The book is convenient in form and cheap, and the selections are so various in subject matter, that it ought to serve its purpose well.

The Works of Horace. Edited with explanatory notes, by Thomas Chase, LL. D. Revised Edition. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1892.

For nearly twenty-five years Dr. Chase's edition of the works of Horace has been extensively used in this country, and is too well-

known to require detailed description. The revised edition, which has just been published, does not in general appearance differ greatly from the former one, save that, being printed from new plates, the press-work is clearer and more agreeable to the eye. A hasty examination, therefore, might lead one to the conclusion that the new book is but a mere reprint of the old, but a careful comparison of the two editions shows that the text has been thoroughly revised and corrected. The notes too, the bulk of which is increased by about twenty pages, show the same thorough revision that is apparent in the text. Not that these alterations in text and notes are ever very startling — often they concern only the orthography, sometimes, as in A. P. 468, the pointing — nor are they arbitrary and capricious; but they show not only excellent literary taste and intimate acquaintance with the text, but also familiarity with the best results of critical scholarship, and witness to the painstaking care with which the editor has revised his earlier work. Among the most conspicuous changes which we have noted is the enclosing of verse 113 of Satire I., Book I., within parentheses, whereby the connection of v. 114 with v. 112 is made more evident and the sense of the entire passage much improved.

A welcome addition are the eight cuts taken from ancient gems, coins, etc., which add much to the beauty of the book and really serve the purpose of illustration.

A Short Historical Grammar of the German Language, translated and adapted from Professor Behaghel's "Deutsche Sprache" by Emil Trechmann, M. A. (Oxon.), Ph. D., University of Sydney. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York: 1891.

In these days, when all sciences, divine, human, and natural, are making the present clearer by the study of the past, when a "liberal education" is made by Max Müller synonymous with an "historical education," such a manual as Behaghel's Deutsche Sprache becomes a desideratum, a necessity. Without being either sensational or technical, it is both popular and scientific, presenting clearly to the reader possessing a general education and likely to be interested in the subject, the main facts in the history and vicissitudes of the language, its orthography, accentuation, phonology, historical accidence and syntax, etc. In no similar work will be found so careful and clear a statement of Grimm's law, nor so faithful an account of the origin and development of the New High German. So also

Umlaut, *Brechung*, and *Ablaut* are clearly defined and fully explained, a matter to be appreciated by every beginner in philological study.

Dr. Trechmann's translation is good in every respect and his adaptation deserving of praise. The English book is printed with greater taste and accuracy than the original, and is supplied with full indexes. The translator has furthermore tabulated all paradigms and series of illustrations, making reference to the book much easier and more valuable. He has added some striking English illustrations, such as *grist* (p. 38), and *wanton* and *wanhope* (p. 46), as well as increased the number of German ones, — so under *machen* (p. 51). The reasons for Trechmann's omissions and rearrangement are not always so apparent. Contact with foreign tongues is a fruitful source of change in a language, so that the chapter on the influence of foreign languages upon German might well have remained at the close of the chapter on the principles of language (as regards change), instead of being put appendix-like at the end of the book. Behaghel's discussion (pp. 41–51) of the part logic, analogy, and æsthetics respectively play in fixing the *jus et norma loquendi* of language is left out, perhaps because of its being too general. But the relation of the dialects to the *Schrift sprache*, and the various pronunciations (treated of in Behaghel, pp. 52–3, 54–7) are certainly worthy of discussion for English students, though not for the reasons Behaghel had in writing on these topics. Behaghel's table of consonant-shifting (p. 19) is more complete and suggestive than Trechmann's (p. 17). But on the whole it must be said that a good book has been made better by Trechmann's editorial labors and by Macmillan's printing and make-up; and it deserves a place by the side of Brandt's German Grammar or Lounsbury's English Language. G. H. S.

Longmans' *School Geography for North America*. By George G. Chisholm, M. A., B. Sc., Fellow of the Royal Geographical and Statistical Societies, and C. H. Leete, A. M., Ph. D., Fellow of the American Geographical Society. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

One of the greatest geographers the world has ever seen, Carl Ritter, once very truly said, "When geography ceases to be a lifeless aggregate of unorganized facts, and deals with the earth as a true organization, it first attains the unity and wholeness of a science, and shows that it grows from a living root." The author of this

important idea has finished his great work in showing the world how intensely interesting geography may become, but his mantle has evidently fallen on worthy shoulders in the person of George G. Chisholm, the author of several valuable books relating to political and commercial geography. All his writings show the Ritter spirit of patient investigation, the topical grouping of facts, and the careful expression of comparisons and deductions.

The English edition of the "School Geography," which made so pleasing an impression upon the mind of the writer a few years ago, devoted only seven pages to the treatment of the United States, and twice as much space to the consideration of India. When the publishers decided to bring out an American edition and give our own country a more complete and exhaustive treatment, they selected Dr. C. H. Leete of New York, to revise the work. This he has done in a careful and conscientious manner, adding some sixty pages to the size of the original.

In noticing the special features of the *School Geography for North America*, we find justification for the reference already made to Ritter. The clear and varied type in which the book is printed first impresses the reader or student. The pages are thus made attractive to children, and the use of heavy full-face type for the leading thought-words is a great help to the memory.

In the next place we notice that the information conveyed in different parts of the book is accurate up to date. Commercial geography, and the relation of such facts one to another, have greatly changed during the past twenty years, but many geographical text-books have not yet made this discovery and are still giving their students old and obsolete information about the world and its business life. The authors of this book are in touch with modern activity and life.

In the third place, the topical method is followed and the vast amount of information gathered is arranged and grouped intelligently. For instance, instead of a separate description of every state in the United States, so common in many books, and which becomes so tiresome and worthless to the child, each section of a grand division is treated as a whole and its characteristics are considered under proper heads. This sensible method emphasizes the leading features of a country, and causes author and student constantly to compare one part with another, or one country with another. Frequent comparison is noticeable in every chapter. Sometimes it is

direct, as when the surface of the Western Highlands is compared with the Eastern Mountain ranges; more frequently the comparison is suggested in the facts expressed, and the children ean easily make it for themselves.

In the fourth place, the book devotes special attention to climate, commerce and productions, subjects which we regret to say are frequently treated in the most meagre way in many text-books. These subjects, we believe, are very important, and most children are intensely interested in them. It is refreshing to find a text-book which gives ample space and careful attention to such live topics.

If any fault were to be found with the *School Geography for North America*, it would arise from the immense mass of information which crowds the 380 pages of this volume. It is not intended that it shall all be learned any more than a dictionary is committed to memory; the student can easily make the necessary selection of material.

The illustrations used are appropriate, as far as they go, but there are not half enough of them, and the reprints in the American edition are inferior to those in the English edition. We doubt not the publishers will at once remedy these slight defects.

The *School Geography* crowded with fresh and accurate matter, carefully arranged under proper heads, and dealing with the live subjects of the busy world, showing frequently cause and effect, comparison and relation, is a book which the judicious teacher can successfully use in the school room. C. F. K.

New School Atlas. Edited by George G. Chisholm and C. H. Leete. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1892.

For twenty years the writer has been searching for an atlas ample in size, accurate to date and moderate in price. Of all he has seen, this one comes the nearest to filling the requirements. A costly atlas grows old just as rapidly as a cheap one. The twenty-five dollar atlases become almost worthless in a dozen years, but a cheap atlas can be renewed with each new edition. We use the word "cheap" here in reference to cost, and not merit. Political changes and new discoveries have affected the boundaries of countries so rapidly in Africa, South America and North America, that it has been no easy task to keep posted in reference to them all. New maps have become a costly necessity for teacher and student. What a relief to learn that one enterprising publisher has given us the new

changes and much more beside without depleting our pocket-book.

The maps in the *New School Atlas* are both physical and political, but they are clear and free from the confusion often caused by the printing of too many names in a given space. As this atlas is intended for school purposes, it is all the better not to carry a surplus of names. The index has a new feature in the giving of many places not located on the maps, but which can be located by the given latitude and longitude.

The physical features are very clear and well defined. This is clearly shown on any single map. For instance, in the map of Russia, three colors are employed. The dark green shows the part which is below the sea-level; the light green indicates the portions of the country which are less than 1,000 feet above the sea-level; and the brown shade, the surface still more elevated. Children by glancing at such maps comprehend at once the great slopes, and thereby the drainage. Elevation and latitude show the general characteristics of the climate.

In the maps, great care has been taken that the scale shall be as far as possible, uniform, or if it is changed at all, the new scale must be a multiple or division of the first scale. For instance, all the grand divisions but one are drawn on a scale of 630 miles to the inch; Europe is drawn 315 miles to the inch. This makes South America very small as compared with Africa; it gives rather an inferior map of the former, but it teaches the child and the adult the truth instead of a half lie which is learned from most text-books. The maps of England, Scotland, Switzerland are to the scale of 31.5 miles to the inch instead of 315, thus enabling the child to make an intelligent comparison in reference to size.

This atlas contains a most excellent variety of maps. Besides the usual ones of the grand divisions and states, there are important maps showing ocean currents, periodical rains, vegetation, density of population and such as are to be found in a good physical geography. There are also good commercial and industrial maps.

Space which is often wasted in school geographies has been carefully utilized in this atlas by numerous insets, thus greatly increasing the amount of information given. The map of France has for its inset, the Environs of Paris; India has England on the same scale; South America has the Coffee Region of Brazil, the Isthmus of Panama, etc.

When we add in closing, that such an atlas can be purchased for a dollar and a half, what more need be said? C. F. K.

Post Prandium Pleasantries in colloquial Latin, by Constantine Stauder. Fasc. I. London, Oct. MDCCCXCI.

Probably by this time many of the readers of THE ACADEMY have seen this beginning number of a journal the aim of which is ostensibly to make the study of Latin interesting to school-boys and school-girls. And with his collected pictures and bright thoughts the editor has undoubtedly taken a step forward; but it seems to me that, like the traditional and tardy school-boy of the icy morning, while he has taken this one step forward he has slipped back at least two.

First: He has not treated Latin with the respect due to a literary language. Children are quick to reflect the manners of their elders, especially when these manners are omissions. It is often a trial to the teacher that his pupil looks on any expressed admiration for the Latin or Greek as either make-believe or a harmless species of insanity only to be thought of on account of its considerable inconvenience to the pupil. Now it is to be noted that, with very few exceptions, the pictures and witticisms of this new periodical are attributed to the to us familiar pages of *Puck*, *Judge* and *Life*, or to the not so familiar London *Scraps*. I think it is safe to say that regarding this as literature, any American boy would fail to see the propriety of learning Latin if it was to be used only to warm over the delicacies of these bright periodicals. Surely, this Latin has to us no literary reason for its existence, since it neither creates literature, nor does it present it to the boy in a more easily appreciated form. It is only a task; and, though tasks have their uses, such is not at all what the editor wished his Latin to be.

The second step backward is, that the Latin is for the most part difficult. It is not always easy for an American to appreciate an American joke, it is often a little difficult for an American to see in London *Punch* what is undoubtedly funny to an Englishman, and the Englishman has the same difficulty with American humor. When we come to consider an entirely foreign language, most of us actually do read philosophy easier than the most sparkling wit. It it is plainly shown, it seems to me, by this number of *Post Prandium*, that the American joke in a Latin dress can be made very difficult of comprehension.

Taking *Post Prandium* in earnest, the question arises whether there would be a demand on the part of teachers of Latin for the continuation which the editor proposes to publish if he receives suf-

ficient encouragement. It would seem as though such a publication must be a welcome addition to the teacher's armamentarium, provided the Latin shall be Latin — not English in a Latin skin — and that the pleasantries can be put into easy Latin. The pecuniary profit from the admirable advertisements would doubtless allow the subscription price to be moderate. There are readers that will be glad to miss in future numbers any bits of parody of the mediæval Latin hymns. The literature cannot afford to have them spoiled for the interested student, such a student as the reader of *Post Prandium* would doubtless be. E. P. K.

A New English Grammar, logical and historical. By Henry Sweet, M.A., Ph.D., LL.D., formerly President of the Philological Society. Part I: introduction, phonology, and accidence. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1891.

The Old and Middle English. By T. L. Kington Oliphant, of Balliol College. Second edition. London: Macmillan & Co., and New York.

Tennyson. *The Princess: a Medley*. With introduction and notes by Percy M. Wallace, M.A., late Professor of English Literature, Mohamedan Anglo-Oriental College, Aligarh. London: Macmillan and Co., and New York. 1892.

Studies in Secondary Education. Edited by Arthur H. D. Alcand, M. P., Honorary Fellow of Baliol College, Oxford, and H. Llewellyn Smith, M.A., B. Sc., Secretary of the National Association for the promotion of technical and secondary education; with an introduction by James Bryce, M. P., Regius Professor of Civil Law in the University of Oxford. New York: Macmillan & Co. 1892.

Macmillan's Greek Course. *Easy Exercises on the First Greek Syntax of Rev. W. Gunion Rutherford, M.A., LL.D.* By the Rev. G. H. Nall, M.A., Assistant Master at Westminister. London: Macmillan and Co., and New York. 1892.

Introduction to Commercial German, by F. Coverley Smith, B. A., Assistant Master in the High School, Nottingham, formerly Scholar of Magdalene College, Cambridge. With a preface by James Gow, M. A., Litt. D., Headmaster of the High School, Nottingham. London: Macmillan and Co., and New York. 1892.

Elementary Classics. *The Medea of Euripides*. With notes, appendix and vocabulary, by M. A. Bayfield, M.A., Headmaster of Christ College, Brecon. London: Macmillan and Co., and New York.

Clarendon Press Series. *A Primer of English Etymology*, by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D., Elrington and Bosworth Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Cambridge. Oxford: at the Clarendon Press. 1892.

Exercises in French Composition, by A. C. Kimball, Teacher in Girls' High School, Boston. Based on La Belle-Nivernaise. For pupils in their third or fourth year's study of French. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., Publishers. 1892.

Lectures on the History of Education, with a visit to German schools. By the late Joseph Payne, the first Professor of the science and art of Education in the College of Preceptors, London; edited by his son, Joseph Frank Payne, M. D., late Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, physician to St. Thomas' Hospital. London: Longmans, Green & Co., and New York. 1892.

Physical Education in the Public Schools. An eclectic system of exercises, including the Delsartean principles of execution and expression, by R. Anna Morris, formerly supervisor of physical culture and reading, Des Moines, Iowa. New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago: American Book Company.

Beowulf: an Anglo-Saxon Epic Poem, translated from the Heyne-Socin text by Jon. Lesslie Hall, Professor of English and History in the College of William and Mary. Boston, U. S. A.: D. C. Heath and Co., Publishers. 1892.

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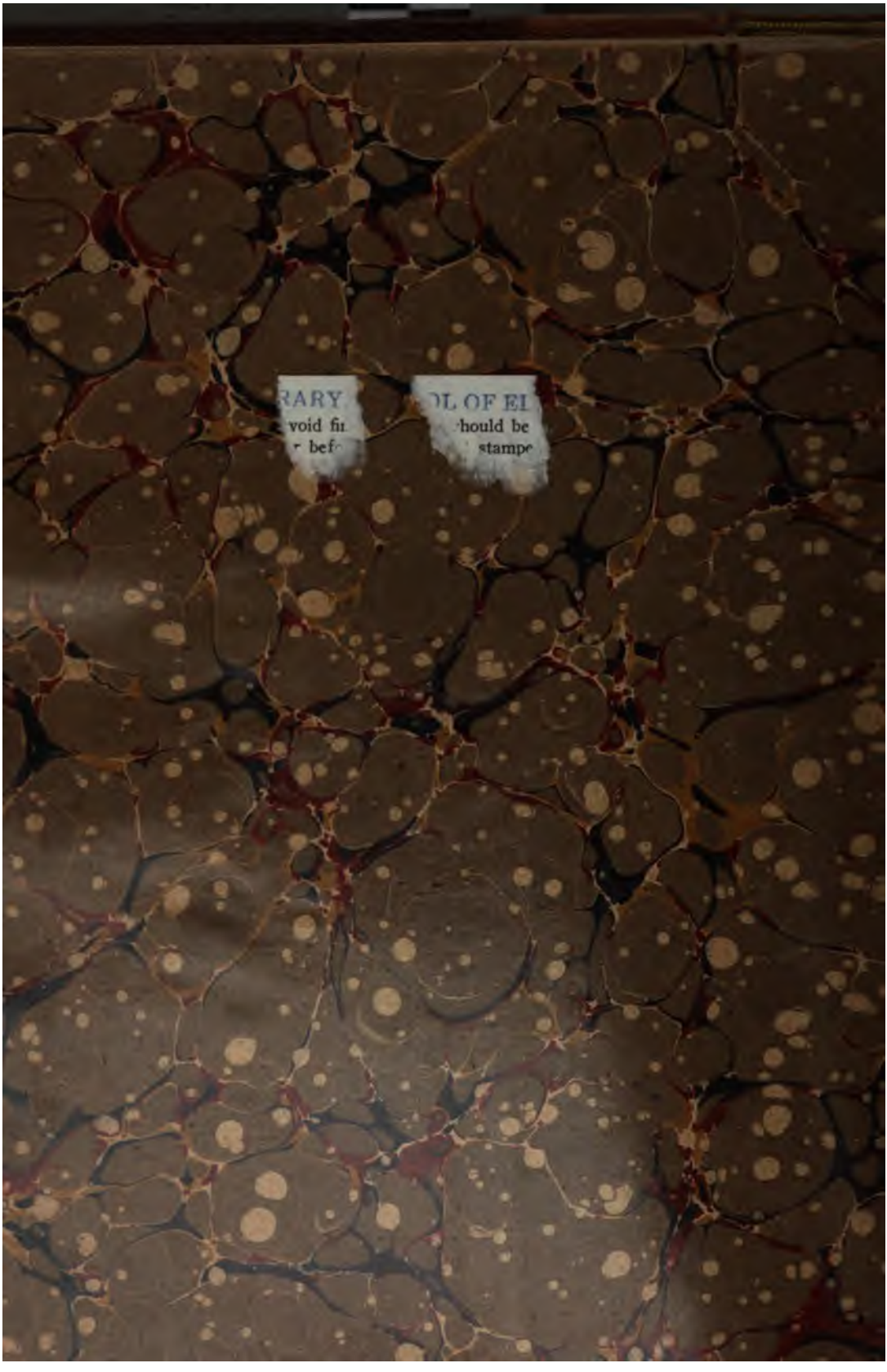
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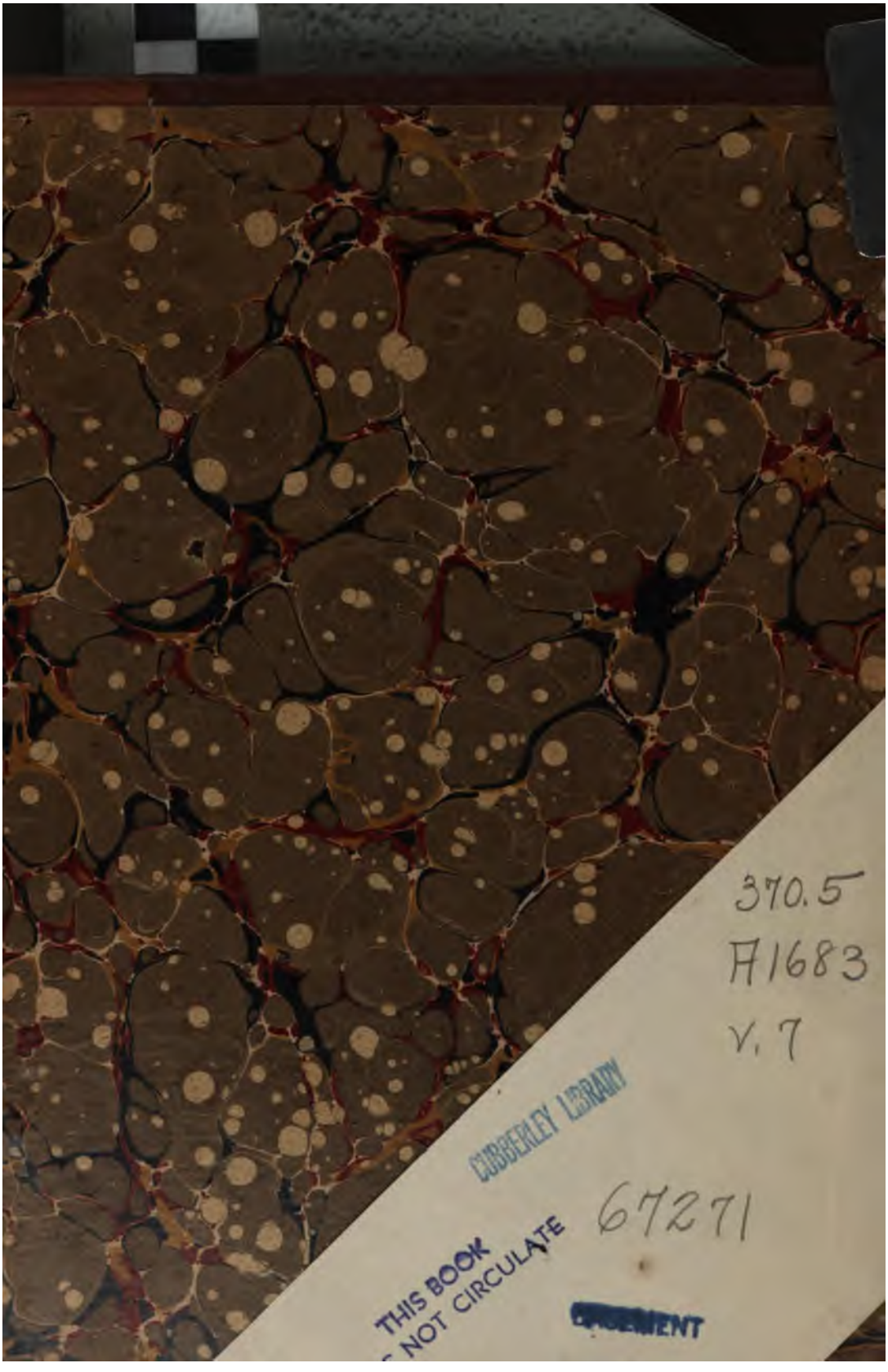
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